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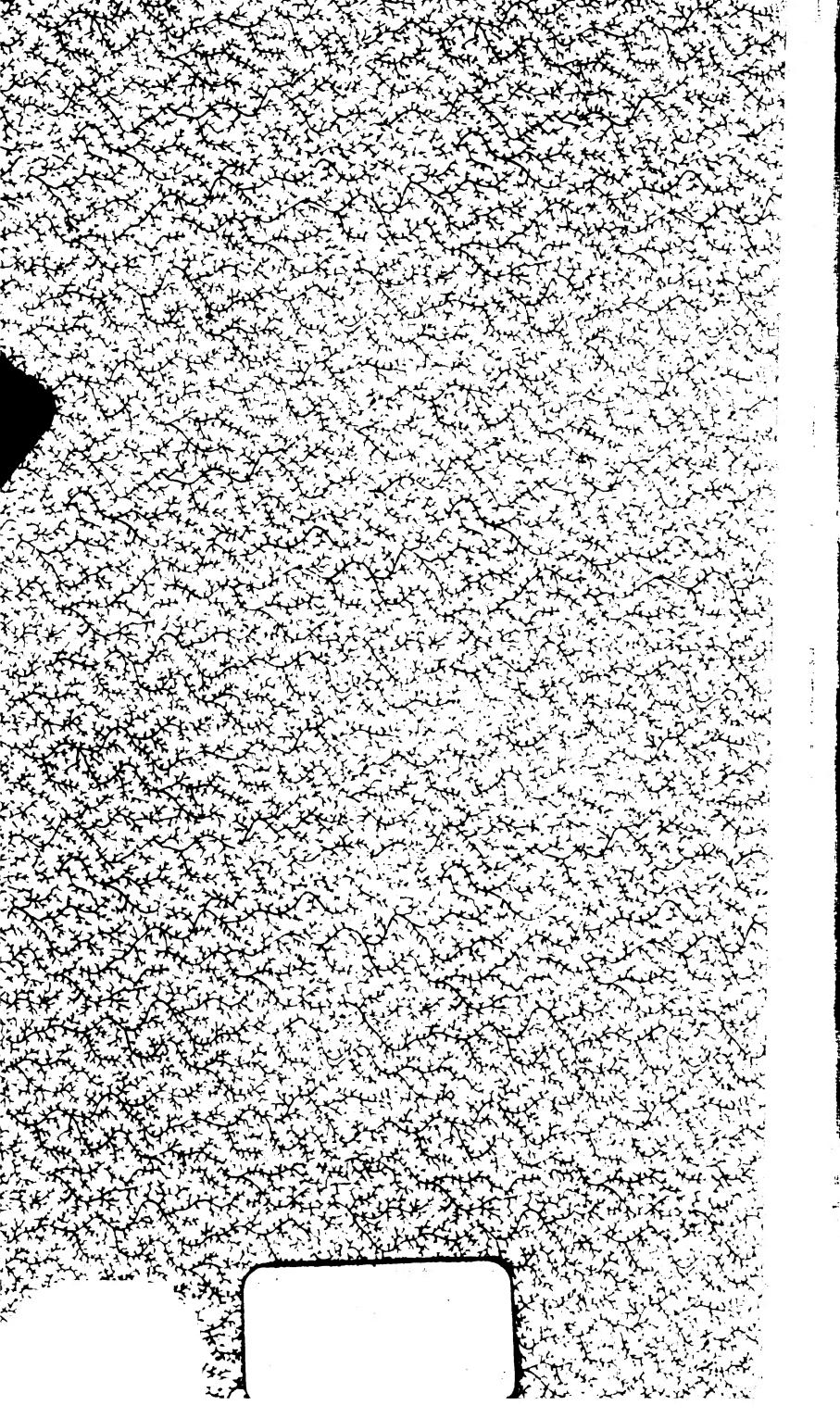
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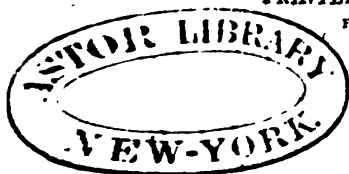
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NOR SET DOWN AUGHT IN MALICE. SHAKESPEARE.

QUALIS AB INCEPTO. HORACE.

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ROY VAN
ALLEN
VASSAL

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JANUARY, 1803.

ART. I.—ὍΜΗΡΟΥ ΙΛΙΑΣ ΚΑΙ ΟΔΥΣΣΕΙΑ· ΕΞ ΕΡΓΑΣΤΗ-
ΡΙΟΥ ΤΥΠΟΓΡΑΦΙΚΟΥ ΑΚΑΔΗΜΙΑΣ ΤΗΣ ΕΝ ΟΞΟΝΙΑ.
Ersi qu.

Homer's Iliad and Odyssey: from the Clarendon Press, Oxford.
4 Vol. 4to. 1800. [*'Lectori'—Mart. 27, 1801.*]

THIS edition of Homer seems to have been superintended by an eye uncommonly accurate in correcting the press, and might have been rendered more useful by a short appendix pointing out to common readers those sources, from which certain alterations, inserted in the context, have been derived. The text of the *Iliad* has been restored in many places by the decisive readings of the Venetian manuscript published by Villoison, and of the valuable transcript belonging to New college, which Joshua Barnes, in his preface, has, unaccountably, ascribed to the library of Queen's college, Oxford.

To the *Odyssey* is subjoined a collation of the Harleian manuscript (5674);—*'istius codicis collatio, quam humanissime in se suscepit Vir eruditissimus RICARDUS PORSON, et summa cum diligentia peragendam esse statuit, digna esse visa est quæ per se integra in medium proferretur. Ad calcem itaque ODYSSEÆ subjicimus, non nudam quidem illam, ex indigesta mole ut fit plerumque conflata, et nulla in trutina castigatam, sed in eruditorum usum, pro ista Græcæ critices scientia, et subacto judicio, quo VIR EGREGIUS unus omnium maxime eminet, nitide atque affabre elaboratam.'*

How much nearer to its original would the *Iliad* have been made to approach by a collation from the same incomparable scholar, of that most excellent manuscript—*'Codex præstantissimus, quem mecum benevole communicavit antiquæ artis reliquiarum spectator elegantissimus, Carolus Townleius.'*—HE would have restored or supplied the Venetian Scholia in innumerable places; have stated with precision the peculiarities

of its paleography, and advanced the boundaries of sound criticism:—*δεινός γὰρ εὔρειν καὶ ἀμνηχανῶν πόρους.*

The copies on small paper are as unseemly as those intended for presentation are splendid; and the pages of both are, as usual, deformed with barbarous contractions.

The frontispiece of the latter is a stately column of the Corinthian order; but the principles and character of this order being delicacy and beauty, not strength and permanence, the Doric or Grecian column, which from its grandeur and simplicity impresses the beholder with the idea of durability, would have been far more appropriate¹. *Hermesianax* (v. 28), we own, is seemingly against us:

Αὐτὸς οὐτὸς αἰδοῖς, ὃν ἐκ Διὸς αἰσὰ φυλαῶσσι
Ἠδίστον παντίων δαίμονα μυνσπολῶν.

RUHNKENIUS thinks *κυδίστον* would have been more characteristic of Homer's metre: and though *Hermesianax* is not very nice in his epithets, it must be allowed, that there are many sweet verses in Homer. In the same note RUHNKENIUS recommends *κηδεσάτε* in room of *κυδίσάτε*, in *Nicander's Ther.* 3.

Φίλ' Ἐρμῆσιανᾶξ, πόλεων κηδεσάτε παῶν

which correction BENTLEY had anticipated in his copy of that poet. Wakefield, in a letter to the venerable Jacob Bryant, reads for *ἡδίστον*, *μηκίστον*. Heinrich substitutes *ποιμένα* for *δαίμονα*, and cites Homer's *ποιμένα λατῶν*. *Æschyl. Suppl.* 763 ed. Pors. *Agam.* 659. Wakefield feels no objection to *αἰδονα*. But *δαίμονα*, signifying a superior, to whom inferiors generally conform themselves, is very aptly applied to the father of heroic song.

Again: the column is decorated with three armorial shields. This, we humbly apprehend, is not correctly classical. Athenian Stuart, indeed, suspects that the intermediate plain and projecting parts of three columns found at Delos, might, on solemn occasions, be covered with tapestry; but shields were appended only to monuments of victory. It has been also suggested that the hollows or flutes of columns composing the peristylum were at first designed to hold the spears² of those invited to the entertainment; but it would, we think, be more safe to consider them as merely

¹ Firm Doric pillars found the solid base,
The gay Corinthian holds the higher space,
And all below is strength, and all above is grace.

DRYDEN.

² *Odyss. A.* 128. *Δρυόδωτος ἐνιστῶν ἄνω—*

ornamental, or as channels intended to preserve the surface of the marble from the bad effects of moisture and rain. The other ornaments are copied from two noble specimens of ancient sculpture: the *κυναὶ οφρύες*³ of the Neapolitan bust inspire us with awful feelings; while the milder graces of the Townleian remind us of the stiller parts of his poems, which discover the finest springs of the human heart. The absence, however, of that celebrated bronze, formerly in the collection of Dr. Mead, and now in the British Museum, is deeply to be regretted:

Εμφρονά χαλκός ὈΜΗΡΟΝ εἰκονοῦν.

Br. An. Gr. t. ii. 468.

The representation of the sun and censers defies all gravity of countenance.

We will now proceed to appreciate the intrinsic merit of this edition.

II. LIB. A.

4. *Αυτοὺς δὲ ἐλωφία*—very properly adopted from Codd. Vat. Ven. and Eustathius; Il. Σ. 93, might surely have been altered with equal certainty *Πατροκλίου δὲ ἐλωφία*.

79. *Καὶ οἱ [Φοί]*, yet in B. 510. 748, we read *καὶ εἰκοσι* instead of *εἰκοσι*. See PORS., ad Odys. φ. 208. RUHNKE-NIUS ad H. in Cer. 274, corrects *μεγέθος ΤΕ καὶ εἶδος*, quia *καὶ fere semper corripitur ante vocalem*: Mitscherlich rejects this alteration, and cites Il. γ. 392, as sufficient authority for the lection of the manuscript, which Ilgen ad H. in Ven. 82, and Matthæi ad eund. v. 13, think incontrovertible; and, like other adepts in Heyne's school of criticism, Jacobs⁴ and Heinrich⁵ are of the same opinion. We are not to look for perfection in any one man; but the opinion of RUHNKE-NIUS ought not to be hastily condemned: we read his note with diffidence and respect, but without that conviction which his remarks usually convey; and we have a claim to the candid interpretation of our readers, when we acknowledge that the consideration of his name staggers us not a little. If *εἶδος*, which is very probable, were pronounced by Homer with the digamma, ΤΕ in v. 274 of this Homeric hymn is unnecessary; and had Ilgen, and his adventurous scholar Godofredus Hermannus⁶, considered the influence of this character when attached to *σμάρα* in the Iliad and Odyssey, they would not

³ 'The projecting brow, casting a broad and deep shadow over the eye.'

ΟΜΗΡΟΝ.

⁴ Exercitat. Crit. t. ii. p. 155.

⁵ Observat. p. 55.

⁶ De Metris Poët. Gr. et Rom. p. 67. Ilgen. Lectod., p. xxii.⁶

have ranked *Il. Γ. 392*, among the metrical anomalies, or have treated RUHNKENIUS's insertion with so little ceremony. In *Odyss. Θ. 169*, read *Ἀλλός· μὲν γὰρ εἶδος* [*Feid.*] *ε* *Odyss. Ζ. 144*, *Λίσσοιτ', εἰ δείξειε πόλιν, καὶ εἰμᾶτα* [*Γει.*] *δοιή* is suspected by the Scholia in Harl. manuscript *περιττός ὁ στιχός*—*καὶ ἀθηνόκλης δὲ ὑπεπτευσσε τοῦ στιχόν*. BENTLEY ad *Callim. H. in Cer. 48*, quotes *Il. Ζ. 383*, which should, we suspect, be read *Ἀντὰρ ἐπεὶ ἔσαντο* [*Feσσ.*]⁷.—Hermannus (l. c.) fancies he has added to the number of exceptions by reading, on the authority of cod. Augustan. of Hesiod, *Εργ. καὶ Ημ. 222* (205. ed. Br.) *Ἥδ' ἔπεται κλαιούσα πόλιν καὶ ἡβέα λαών*. The rare occurrence of *τε* and *και* in the fourth foot of an hexameter verse proves this to be the genuine reading; and *Ἡβέα* will remove the metrical irregularity: *Odyss. Ξ, 411*. *Τας μὲν ἀρὰ ἔρξαν κατὰ ἡβέα κοιμηθῆναι*, and in *Il. Ζ. 511*, read *Ῥιμφοῖ ἐγούνα φέρει μετὰ ἡβέα* [*Ἡβ.*]⁸; and the writer or writers of the *Theogonia*, 65. *Μελλονται πάντων τε νόμους καὶ ἡβέα* [*Ἡβ.*] *Il. Ζ. 478*. *Ὦδε βίην τ' ἀγαθόν, καὶ ἱλίου* ⁹ [*Ἡλ.*]⁹—*I. 393*. *Ὦν γὰρ δὴ με σάωσι θεοὶ, καὶ οἰκαδ'* [*Ἡοικ.*].—Mitscherlich, however, asserts that the instances, which militate against this law, are nearly infinite; and he will probably furnish us with a few more in his promised edition of the hymns of the Homeridae. We can hardly think that even Hermannus would press into his service the following delectable lines; *Il. A, 509*.—*Ὀφελῶσιν τε οἱ τιμῇν*. MS. C. C. C. Cant. in the text. *Apoll. Rhod. 1, 320*, as read by the Scholiast ad 1, 1174. *Ἦν δ' ἀρ' ἐπὶ προμύλῃσιν οἱ δ' ἀντιοὶ ἠγερθεόντο*; and *πλοκαῖμοι βοτρυζεντες* as produced by the acute Bp. Hurd¹⁰ from *Il, 677*, ed. Br. in order to prove that the diphthong *οἱ* may be short before a consonant. In *Il, 194*, *Ὦς φάτ', ἐπὶ νῆσάν δὲ νεοὶ ἐπὸς Αἰσωνίδας*, Dr. Taylor, in an unguarded moment, conjectured *λογόν*. Beside, some allowance must be made for those syllables which fall under the 'ictus metrici'¹¹; *Il. Γ, 40*; the editions have *Αἰθ' ὀφελές τ' ἀγώνος τ' ἐμμεναι*, whereas most of the manuscripts, which we have consulted, have *Αἰθ' ὀφελές τ' ἐμμεναι ἀγώνος*, which ed. Villos confirms. *Αἰθ' ὀφελές ἀγώνος τ' ἐμμεναι, αἰ*—*Ibid. I, 402*. *Ἰλῖον ἐκτρησθαι, εὐ ναιούμενον πτόλιεθρον*. See also a fragment attributed to Apollonius Rhodius, taken from *Etym. MS. Bibl. Reg.* by RUHNKENIUS, in *Ess. Cr. II, p. 195*, v. 5.

Godofredus Hermannus, impatient of keeping pace with the

⁷ DAWES. M. C. p. 61.

⁸ Hermannus de emend. Rat. Gr. Gramm.

⁹ Schol. Villos. ad l. c. *ἀλλὰ, αἰδὲ θεοὶ ἀγαθόντι*.

¹⁰ On the Marks of Imitation, p. 183.

¹¹ Hermann. de Metr. Gr. p. 70.

slow progress of research, thinks himself at liberty to start from the plain road, in hopes of finding some bye-path to truth; he is assiduously engaged in proving that those laws of metre and construction, which have been laid down by real critics, and determined by the voice of classical antiquity, are still in an uncertain and defenceless condition; and he humbly apprehends that it will be his lot thoroughly to investigate the metrical arrangements of the tragic and comic poets¹². And those who have inspected his writings will readily grant that he is neither sparing of labour nor scrupulous in choice of means to accomplish his purpose. In p. 155—*de metris*—he quotes from Mr. Brunck's ethic poetry, p. 198,

Ὀγδοὺς ἀνακλήτορων, ὃ δ' ἐννατὸς χοῆς,

as a trimeter iambic of the comic poet Eubulus: the metre and language of Athens incline us to suspect the evidence of this voucher: for κλητήρ is used universally by the Attic writers—it does, or ought, always to occupy the text of Demosthenes. Aristides, indeed, and later sophists, used κλητήρ and κλητωρ indiscriminately; but on this point they are no authority. *ἀνακλήτωρ* is not Greek;—in a fragment of the same poet, apud Athen. xiv. 640. B. *Ἐν ταῖς Αῤῥαῖς* ΟΥΚ' ΑΚΑΗ-ΤΗΡΕΣ, βοτρυς, is thus happily restored by the much regretted PIERSON¹³, *ΚΛΗΤ*—How then came *ἀνακλήτορων* here? The copies of Athenæus¹⁴, to whom we are indebted for this fragment, have *ὀγδοὺς κλητοῖς*.—Grotius finding the line in this mangled state, and determined, at any rate, to heal it, recommends *ἀνακλήτορος*¹⁵: DAWES's canon is rarely violated with impunity; and Brunck, who had been warned by Toup's perilous experiments, consulted the verse by altering the number of *ἀνακλήτορος*; and thus secured the second place for his favourite anapæst, preceded by a dactyl: but *ἐννατὸς* is

¹² 'Accedunt leges quædam tum prosodiæ, tum omnino rationis grammaticæ, quas Dawesius potissimum protulit, magnis abnoxie [obnoxie] dubitationibus. In quibus legibus perpendendis, ac vel confirmandis, vel refutandis, plurimum diligentis et assiduitatis ponatur necesse est. Quod si hoc efficere mihi contigerit, ut horum poetarum metra penitus pervestigaverim, spero fore, ut hæc certe pars doctrinæ grammaticæ ad justæ disciplinæ formam adducatur.'—Orat. adit. adit., pp. v. vi.

¹³ Ad Moer. Attic. p. 363.

¹⁴ II, 36. D.

¹⁵ Ad excerpta p. 649. Yet Grotius, strange to tell, has made the *α* in *φύλακται* short in Stob. Flor. Tit. xliii. 165. [Cf. Br. Fragm. Soph. p. 674. ed. 8vo.] 'Ὅπου γὰρ αἱ φύλακται ἴσονται τιμῶν.' Ita ob verum posui cum exstaret *φύλακται*.—Salmasius preferred *φύλακται*. PIERSON Verisim. p. 133, *φύλακται*; and about the same time Reiske, as is evident from his letter to Bernard, p. 450, which he however does not mention in his review of that book, by which he justly displeased VALCKENAER, in Acta Erudit. mens. Mali, 1752. p. 279. *φύλακται*—a word as peculiar to Sophocles as *τιμῶν* is to Euripides.

always a tribrach in Attic poetry; Grotius, however, completed the verse by doubling the N; and in this contumelious state, lacerated with a typographical error, Godofredus Hermannus appeals to it in an elementary treatise on the Greek and Latin metres! Had Godofredus Hermannus been acquainted with the notes of the elegant and ingenious Florens Christianus in Vesp. Aristoph. ¹⁶, he would (v. 1384) have found this verse as it came from the comic poet's hand—

‘Ο Δ’ ΟΓΔΟΟC κλητῆρος, ὁ δ’ ἐνατος χολῆς.

Soph. El. 706. ‘Ο δ’ ΟΓΔΟΟC, λευκιππος, Αἰνείαν γένος·

‘ΕΝΑΤΟC, Αῤῥωνων των θεοδμητων απο.

Other verses equally round and sound as this, Godofredus Hermannus presses on our notice with his usual effrontery: at p. 160, he cites from Aristophanes's Aves, 1693, *αλλα γαμικην χλανιδα διδοτω τις δευρο μοι*, and triumphantly asks, ‘Ubi quid est, quod in numero hæreas? Tam rotundus hic versus est, tam elegans et cultus, ut magis non possit.’—We have here a specimen of his delicacy of ear for the cadence of Greek iambic verses; he is enraptured with *χλανιδα διδοτω*, and would, we have no doubt, adopt it in preference to *ελλα γαμικην χλανιδα δοτω τις δευρο μοι*. The fact is—*αλλα* being omitted in the Aldine and the two Juntine editions of the text, without which the verse had not its due complement of feet—*δοτω* was expanded into *διδοτω*, or *διδωτω*, which he continues after *αλλα* had been restored: but the original text, given above, is taken from the Schol. in 1565; and has been pointed out by our incomparable professor, in his account of Brunck's edition of Aristophanes. With what triumph will Godofredus Hermannus rescue from this TRUE CRITIC Eur. Hel. 299. *Εἰς ξυμβολ’ ελθοντες, ἃ φανερα μονοις αν ην*; and how eager will he be to transmit it pure and undiminished to posterity! ‘Tales errores ubique corrigendi, non in exemplum trahendi.’

A. 230. *Εἰρη* is very properly restored to the text; partly, we suppose, on the authority of the Venet. MS. first ed. and the Harl. MS. Scholia.

A. 340. *Εἰποτε, δ’ αὐτε Χρειω εμειο γενηται*—] ought not to have sullied the text of the Grenville Homer. This passage has been restored by a profound scholar—*εἰκε ποτ’ αὐτε*. The common reading of the editions is defended by Godofredus Hermannus, who in pursuit of irregularities of construction is singularly vigorous. Here we would not have declined to

¹⁶ Casaubon Animadv. in Athen (p. 78) has given a clue to the beginning of the verse. Fl. Christianus died in 1596; Casaubon published his *Athenæus* in 1597; and Kumpius Aristoph. Vesp. with Fl. Chris. notes, 1620.

meet his objections to DAWES's¹⁷ precept, had such a discussion been commensurate with our limits. We will, however, aver that the discovery of those laws demands patience, caution, and humility, aided with the greatest efforts of sagacity: some faint glimpses of BENTLEY's decisions may be traced in the vague conjectures of preceding critics; but it was left for him to demonstrate and to establish them: certain hints, which he had negligently thrown out, urged him to examine and strengthen the basis of others, which he would otherwise have left to the care of future ages. Convinced that his rules were formed by the most just inferences from the surest principles, DAWES desisted too soon from the severe disquisition: he adhered too rigidly to analogy, neglected to make these discriminations which would have done away many seeming difficulties, and failed to crown his deductions with extensive reading and deep consideration.—And all are, we hope, by this time convinced that the canon given, Hee. 347—inculcating a recondite property of tragic iambs—was the result of minute investigation, nice distinction, and painful thought.

To prove that *si* is used with a subjunctive mood¹⁸, he alleges Odyss. II. 138: in the admirable collation of the Harl. MS. it is remarked—'138. *si* καὶ et in marg. γρ. ἡ et supra ἡ scriptum ἀγα. Si igitur varietas ἡ ἀγα fideliter a Clarkio e MS. notata est, hic quoque glossa pro varia lectione invasit. Nam solae variae lectiones sunt ἡ καὶ et *si* καὶ.' IL. I. 318, is not to the purpose. If Hermannus be startled at πολεμίζοις, Schol. in Plat. p. 165, will help him to another reading. In Odyss. E. 221. 'Παισι is the poetic indicative from παιῶμι, as H. 204.

¹⁷ Misc. Crit. p. 82. 'Sed ea nisi machinis impulsæ validioribus, æternum persistet inconcussa.' The emendation—*γρῶνθ*. Æschyl. P. V. 464—which the late discerning and precise Mr. Tyrwhitt, ap. Burgess (p. 471) deemed unnecessary, is preferred to *γρῶνθ*, in his 'Conjecturæ in Æschylum, &c.' The Scotch ed. gives the reading of DAWES and the punctuation of Tyrwhitt, l. c.: either reading, indeed, may be right. In nice points of criticism it sometimes happens, that the mind oscillates between two opinions. This noble critic seems not to have satisfied himself about that obscure fragment of Aechæus in Athen. xi. 466. [Cf. Burgess, p. 425, et App. ad Toup. Em. in Suid. p. 427. We feel unmingled joy in being enabled to state that his 'Conjecturæ in Æschyl. &c.' have been printed off for some time, and wait only for some letters that passed between Tyrwhitt and Mr. Brunck. Though mindful of VALCKENAER's salutary advice, ad Eur. Ph. 302, we do not think the hints transcribed from the margin of T.'s copy of Toup's Em. in Suid. sufficiently accurate. In partem tertiam, pr. p. 16. *ἐν* ΔΑΤΕΡΑ Γ'-] *ΧΡΥΤΟΤΗ*. lb. p. 277, l. 3. ΠΑΡΕΚΤΗΚΟΤΟC· α' αὐτοῦ] in cur. noviss. p. 32. *ἱερμολίος* ΑΡΑΤΕ] ΑΡΑΤΕ. lb. αὐτὸ γλ. B.] αὐτὸ C. B. p. 79. *Ἀνδρῶν* [ἑμῶν μὲν.] *Ἀνδρῶν* ΤΟΥ *ἑμῶν* μὲν deletit Athenæus. lb. p. 176. *Ἀνδρῶν* ΕἰΔΟΤΟC ΑΔΑ' ΟΤΑΕ. These atoms of knowledge may at least suggest vestiges of the ancient readings; they were left by a character fertile in every great and good qualification—"may recorded honours gather round his monument, and thicken over him!"

¹⁸ Observ. Crit. p. 76, which observation he has inserted amongst his Adnot. in Viger. p. 791;—in both places for 'Plutium 116,' read 'Plutium 216.'

ξυμῆλγται from ξυμῆλγμαι—⁸ ξυμῆλγτο MS. Harl.' The remaining passages from the Iliad have been corrected by the hand of a real critic¹⁰, who in Il. E. 258, εἰ κ' οὖν—O, 16. εἰ κ' αὐτε. In the Homeric Hymn. in Apoll. 46, the first ed. has εἰ τις σὺν'. Ilgen conjectures εἰ τις οἶ—Matthæi εἰ τις χ' οἶ—MS. Reg. Εἰ τις γαίαιων υἱεὶ θέλει—quod etiam Barnesius secutus est.⁷ Ruhnken. Ep. Crit. 1. p. 9. Il. Δ. 219, produced by Ilgen and Matthæi (l. c.) should be read *οἶ* [F*ω*i] ποτε πατρι. It may be observed *εν* παροδῶι that in Il. A. 83, a Harl. MS. reads εἰ μὲ σαυσαίς, which is a specious variation. Xenoph. Anab. vii. 624. (p. 550, ed. Cantab. 1785.) Οὐκ εἰς μὲν Περινθόν, εἰ προσήτε τῇ πόλει, Ἀρισταρχὸς ἡμᾶς ὁ Λακεδαιμονίᾳς οὐκ εἰς πείσιναι, ἀποκλείσας τὰς πύλας. In Ald. ed. 1525. 2 Flor. 1527, εἰ προσίτε. MSS. Eton. Guelf. Περινθὲν προσίτε πολιν· εἰ is *πενε* used with a subjunctive mood: in Xenoph. Cyrop. I. 4, 10, read εἰ τοῖνον μὴ σὺ δει; with the optative mood the conditional εἰ is preceded by *αν*: in Xenoph. Anab. vii. 6. 24. MSS. Eton. Par. retain *Νυν* AN, εἰ—in this passage εἰ does not imply a future contingent event, but what is supposed actually to have happened; read then εἰ προσήτε τῇ πόλει, 'if ye had arrived before the city.'

[A.]

342. Ολῶγησι is preferable to Barnes's ολῶγησι, and is found in the Cod. Ven.; but the common reading, pronounced with the digammon inserted, is probably nearest to the original.

344. Μαχέωνται—Barnes's μαχεσιατ' ought to have been replaced in the text.

480. Στήσαν τε will not, we believe, be disputed.

608. Ποίησεν ἰδυίησι is supported by the MS. belonging to Benet coll. Camb. Cod. Venet. Eustath. and Apollon. Lex. in v.: the specimen, however, of BENTLEY's intended edition of Homer, given by the learned Dr. Burgess, PRÆF. ad DAW. M. C. p. xxvii. vss. 546. 548, ought to have suggested the genuine text—ποιήσῃ ἰδυίησι [F*id*.] In Odyss. A, 428, read κέδνα ἰδυία [F*id*.] and H, 92, ἐτρυξε ἰδυίησι [F*id*.] Il. I, 128. πργα ἰδυίας. See Σ, 380. 482²⁰.

More alterations, we presume, might have been made without incurring the charge of innovation.

117. Σων was perhaps lengthened into σουν after the poet's time: it would be fruitless to attempt to determine its original form: but we cannot applaud a perpetual fluctuation in the spell-

⁷ Dr. BURNEY's Remarks on Milton's Greek Verses, p. 596.

⁸ 51. H. Stephanus's αῖσις is very prudently rejected; see Etym. M. p. 187, l. l. n. p. 444. We may observe, on v. 112, that θέλας is attributed to Homer by the best MSS. not θέλα. See Schol. cod. Harl. ad Od. O, 316. γ, 272. π, 67. C, 356. γ, 141. D, 4. Id. xv. 41. Δακρ' ὅσα θέλας scripsit per elisionem Theocritus. PORS. ad Eur. Med, 1218. VALCK. ad l. seems to prefer Δακρ' ὅσα' αἰ.

ing of this word. See Il. N, 773: Odys. K, 268, and Cod. Harl.

11. *Ἠριμασεν*, from Cod. Ven. et Schol. would have given spirit and elasticity to the line.

298. *Μαχησομαι*] *μαχεσομαι* occurs in the text: *μαχεσσομαι* in the Scholia of the Cod. Ven. Eustath. I, 106, 36. ed. Rom. Κατα τους παλαιους ἡ Μασσαλιωτικη και Σινωπικη εκδοσις της Ιλιαδος, το μαχησομαι εχει. Ἡρακλειων δε—δια του Ε προφερω, and 304, *μαχεσσαμενω*, ed. Grenv.; but Γ, 137, *μαχησονται*, and 290, *μαχησομαι*. An uniformity of orthography ought at least, to have been observed.

435. *Προεφυσσαν*] Schol. Venet. restores the genuine lection *προεφυσσαν*; and in Od. N, 279, the text of the admirable Harl. MS. is made up of both readings: *προεφυσσαμεν*, Od. I, 73. I. *προεφυσσαμεν*, as N, 279. In O, 496, the Harl. Schol. furnishes the proper word.

555. *Παρειπη*] *παρελθη*. BENTLEY ap. Burg. l. c.

572—578. *Επιηρα*] ought to have been printed *ἐπὶ ἤρα*. See Toup. in Hesych. III, 557. Br. in An. Gr. pp. 112. 200.

599. *Γελως*] and Od. Θ, 326; but in Od. Τ, 346. *Αἰεσσων γελον*—MS. Harl. *γελω*; and in Τ, 8. *γελωτα και*—MS. Harl. *γελωντε και*: hence *γελος* is probably the language of Homer. Il. E, 416. *Ιχω* is rightly edited, though MS. Harl. 5693, has *ιχωρ* (see Wolf. Proleg. p. xxxiii.); but in Il. Δ, 27. *ιδρω* ὅ' occurs instead of *ιδρω* ὅ' ὄν. Schol. Ven.; as, *Απολλων Πλοσιδιπλαγω*. See Toup. in Suid. V. I. p. 119. Piers. ad Herodian. p. 439. Greg. p. 71. PORS. ad Orest. 584. *Αιω τον αιωνα ματ' αποκοτην Δισχυλος ειπεν*. Gramm. MS. Sangerm. ap. RUHNK.

B.

Our limits will not permit us to enumerate the readings of the second book, which are numerous and valuable: we cannot, however, help suspecting that 287, *ενθαδ' επιστειχοντες*, from Dionys. Hal. de Art. Rhet. ought not to have supplanted *επι στειχ'* on the solitary evidence of MS. Coll. Reg. Cant.

106. The final *Ny* is omitted in the edd. and MS. Cantab. of Thucydides.

409. Athenæus, IV, 177, D. informs us that some critics considered this line as spurious. See also Eustathius, I, p. 247, 11, ed. Rom.; Brunck, in his Suppl. ad Aristoph. Ran. 432, appeals to it as sound: Plut. 452, read, *Θαρρει' μονος γαρ ουτος ο θεος, οιδ' ετι*.

426. *ὑπειρεχον*. MS. Harl. *ὑπερειχον*. Hesychius *ὑπειρεχον*, and Etym. M. in v.; the last in p. 440, 20. *Σπλαγχνα δ' αρ' αμπειραντες ὑπειρεχον ἡφαιστοιο*.

439. *Πετηγων*, as in Od. N, 87; whereas in Od. Π, 218, we find *πετεηναι*—*πετεηνα*, MS. Harl. Hesiod. Eργ. 277. *πετεηνοις*. Cod. ap. Villos. Epp. Vinar. p. 61. Græv. and Brunck.

525. *Εστασαν*] Cod. Ven. and two Harl. MSS. read *ιστασαν*, which in *Odyss.* Θ, 435, occupies a place in the text, and ought to be re-instated in *Od. X*, 480, from a correction in the celebrated MS. Harl. In *Il. Δ*, 367, and *Od. X*, 469, *εστηκει*: but *Il. Δ*, 329, *ειστηκει*. See BENTL. ad *Callim. H.* in *Apoll.* 14, and *PORS.* ad *Eur. Ph.* 1487.

553. *Τῷ δ' οὖτω τις* is wisely adopted from ed. PRINCEPS, and Wassenberg: Why was *επιχθονιος* rejected? *Il. Ω*, 505.

611. *Επισταμενοι πολεμοιο*] Ed. PR. *ἐκ. πολεμίζειν*.

730. *Soph. Tr.* 327. [ed. Br.] calls *την θ' ὑψιπυργον οὐχαλιαν*—ΔΙΗΝΕΜΟΝ on which Schol. Lasc. ΔΙΗΝΕΜΟΝ. *αρημον. ὑψηλὴν ἢ Ὀμηρος, ημεμεσσαν φησιν*. Now the Sch. could not refer to *v. 606*, since *Enispe* was not *Iöle's* native place; but the Scholiast is supposed by Brunck to allude to this line, and to have followed a copy, which had *ημεμεσσαν*.

Γ.

35. *Etym. M. v. Παρεια. Ιλιαδης Γ, (35), χωρις του ε' ἐν ἡ ουδα-τερον—πλευραι, πλευρα.* See also *PORS.* ad *Hec.* 820. *Or.* 217, *παρεια* is in the text of the Cod. Ven.

100. *Ατης* was a conjectural emendation of Dr. Taylor's, long before the appearance of the Schol. Ven.

140. *Προτερειο, και αστειος*.] Dr. Vincent, speaking of the digammon, says, 'The existence of this letter is still preserved in some marbles, and upon a medal of the Asturenians, written FAETT: Goltzius, tab. 17, Bentley²¹.' *Gr. Verb. Anal.* p. 55. From this remark the line might have been easily amended *πριτερου και αστειος* [*Φαστ.*]. If he, 'who, for several years, has presided, with much advantage to the rising generation, and much credit to himself, in one of the first, and most justly famous, of the public seminaries of this kingdom²²,' would favour the admirers of Homer with 'some short MS. notes of Bentley's,' every scholar would unite with us in again rendering the meed of honest praise to Dr. Vincent, whose ardor of sentiment, and energy of language, displayed in defence of public education, has been felt, and crowned with glory.

Servant of God, well done! Well hast thou fought
The better fight, who single hast maintain'd
Against revolted multitudes the cause
Of TRUTH.

²¹ Captain Gunter Brown says nothing 'to the *wau wau* of squalling brats'; and he would have said *less*, if 'to be merry and wise' had been much at his heart.

*Dii majorum umbris tenuem et sine pondere terram
Spirantesque crocos, et in urna perpetuum ver,
Qui præceptorem sancti voluere parentis
Esse loco.*

²² Bishop Horsley on the *Prooedies*, p. 156.

212. Casaub. in Theocr. Lect. c. 9, had emended *σπαινον*; which was approved by d'Orville, Misc. Obs. I. 121, and ought to have been adopted. In the short Scholia, as published by Barnes, read, *Εσπαινον φανερὰ ποίουν, ελεγων. Τραινων. επλεκον*. In 42. we were glad to see *σποψιον*. Sch. Lips. ap. Ernest. *Αριστοφανης δε σποψιον γραφει*, and Etym. M. v. *Τποψιος*;—*Ηρωδιανος δε δια του ε γραφει*.

301. *Μιγειεν*.] MS. Harl. 5693, has *μγειεν* in the text, and *γα. δαμειεν*, with the gl. *υποζευχθειεν* between the lines; MS. 5600, has *δαμειεν* in the text, which is confirmed by the Harl. Schol. 5727, and Etym. M. v. *Δαμέιεν*, who quotes *αλλοι δ'αλλοισι δαμειεν*. Ed. PRINCEPS, *αλοχοι δ'αλλοισι δαμειεν* which is far more forcible and dignified.

359 Schol. Harl. MS. has *αντικρυς*, which deserves recording. See II. E, 130. Hesiod, Ery. 523, (ed. Br.) H. in Cex. 317.

357 *Οεριμον*.] In Greece, as in other countries, orthography was at first simple; afterwards, satiated with repeated attempts at improvement, writers by a corrective process recurred to the simplicity of their ancestors: so *οεριμος* might, after Homer's time, become *ομεριμος*; which the tragic poets, out of grateful veneration for their great model, might discard for the earlier mode of spelling. We do not assert that the ancients were strictly uniform; but this form, we apprehend, prevailed much more than the other. *Ομεριμος*, however, according to Hermannus (de rat. emend. Gr. Gramm. p. 21), was used by the poets, *οεριμος* by the prose writers; and to his references may be added H. Steph. Thes. Gr. I. 794. RUHNK. Ep. Crit. I. 77. ed. 2. Br. in Ar. Eq. 1178. Orest. Eur. 1455, ed. PORS.

Απλακημα and *αμπλακημα* *αναπλακητος* and *αναμπλακητος*, have undergone the same changes. We consulted Carolus Gottlob Augustus Erfurdt's ed. of Soph. Tr. (Lips. 1802,) v. 120, and were not surprised that 'Ea in re dux mihi fuit et auctor consilii Hermannus, quem virum egregium summa pietate prosequimur, quotquot disciplina ejus ac familiaritate fructuosissima, studiorum pariter atque animorum haud vulgari consensione juncti lætabamur.

It may not perhaps be useless to give the variations of most of the editions:

120. *Αιεν αμπλακτηρον αιδα* (MS. Harl.) Ald. Fl. 1522. 1528. 1534. 1544. 1547. Turneb. 1555. 4. 12. 1568. (Camerarius in Comment. *αναμπλακτηρον*) 1585. 1603. 1669. 1708. 1722. (Weas. Obs. p. 163.) 1745. 1747. 1758. 1781. ΑΜΠΛΑΚΙΟΝ Schol. Lasc. 1518.

Απλακτηρον Hesychius in v. Heath. Br. 1785. 1786. 1789. 1791. 1795. 1802²³.

²³ Sahl's Sophocles, and Billerbeck's Trachinix, have not been consulted.

αναπλακῆτον Musgr. in notis, and Hermann, de em. rat. Gr. Gramm. p. 20. By reading αναπλακῆτον, we consult the metre, sense, and uniformity of spelling. It would, indeed, be difficult to subject this variation to law; the μ was added without any apparent metrical necessity.

411 read πορσΑνευσα from Cod. Ven. Sch. Harl. 5727. Hesychius, H. in Cer. 156. Etym. M. p. 683, 47. Θυγατὲρ ἰφθιμῆν Ἀδμητα²⁴ πορσαινέσκον Ἀπολλωνίως (iv. 897.) See I. 802, 909. II. 248. 719. 1051. III. 340. 1124. 1129. 840 Br. IV. 549. 711. 897. 967. 1107. 1119.

Δ.

41. Εγέτασι.] Hesychius.

171. Πολυδιψιον.] 'ΠΟΛΥΤΡΙΨΙΟΝ-ΑΡΓΙΟΣ, much injured Argos,' says Upton on Shakesp. p. 44. Πολυτριψιον—*multum desideratum*—is proposed by Toup. in Hesych. III, 326; but Hesychius fortifies the lection of all the editions in v. Διψιον Ἀργος. Ἡλιοδωρὸς μὲν, το αὐδωρὸν Ἀρίσταρχος δὲ, το πολυποδῆτον. Cf. Etym. M. in v. Πολυδιψιον. Æschyl. Choëph. 183. Soph. Ant. 246. 429. Schol. in Apoll. Rhod. IV, 14. Eur. Alcest. 560. ed. Musgr.

242. Ιομαφοι.] ought to be *ιομαφοι*, 'violæ fato destinati;' the 'long-concealed sense' of this word was shrewdly detected by the late Dr. Askew. II. Ψ, 850. *ιοεντα σιδερον*, 'violacei-coloris ferrum,' (blue-gleaming). DAWES, M. C. p. 185. This admirable work was published at Camb. 1745, by the united aid of Mr. Hubbard and Dr. Mason: and the second volume of Hesychius appeared under the auspices of RUHNKENIUS in 1766. See also Abresch, ad Hesych. v. *ισφωσα*; where the Lexicographer and the Schol. on Apoll. Rhod. emend and illustrate each other.

269. Εχευαν. MSS. Harl. II. Γ, 270. Εχευον. ED. PRINC. Od. A, 146. Cod. Harl.

282. Πεφρικνιαι.] Ἀρίσταρχος βεβριθνιαι. Sch. MS. Bibl. Reg. ap. RUHNK. PRÆF. ad Hesych. p. ix.

452. Οξριμον ὕδωρ.] 'Sæpe quidem, οξριμος Ἀρης, ab Homero usurpatum, frequentissime etiam οξριμον εγγχος, sed οξριμον ὕδωρ nullibi. Quid si itaque legeretur ομριων (sive ομριμον) ὕδωρ? In locis huic parallelis Διος ομριος adhibuit, II. ii. 91. A, 493. Adde N, 139.' VALCK. Misc. Obs. VIII. II. 177.

480. Νιν] Μιν is the Homeric word,

We are strenuous advocates for the use of the Greek accentual marks; but, from the expedition requisite in a monthly publication, we feel unwilling to commit those σηματα λυγρα to the mercy of compositors,

(To be continued.)

ART. II.—*An Account of a Geographical and Astronomical Expedition to the Northern Parts of Russia, for ascertaining the Degrees of Latitude and Longitude of the Mouth of the River Kovima; of the whole Coast of the Tshitski, to East Cape; and of the Islands in the Eastern Ocean, stretching to the American Coast. Performed, by Command of her Imperial Majesty Catharine the Second, Empress of all the Russias, by Commodore Joseph Billings, in the Years 1785, &c. to 1794. The whole narrated from the Original Papers, by Martin Sauer, Secretary to the Expedition. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

GEOGRAPHICAL discoveries, within the last century, have been so numerous and splendid, that navigators must regret, with Alexander, the want of other worlds to conquer; of unknown seas to explore; of new continents, whose outline can be traced, or whose interior can be examined. The triumphs of nautical discoveries, though more extensive, and infinitely more noble, than those of the Macedonian, are still limited; and to correct a latitude, or to divide what appeared to former voyagers the prominent coast of a continent, into a mere cluster of islands, must now, for the most part, content the boldest investigator. These are not, however, without their interest or importance; and, having completed the outline, as well as having endeavoured to correct it, the restless enterprising spirit is next turned to examine, more accurately, the internal parts of countries, which had been neglected as sufficiently known, or despised as altogether useless. The narrative before us, though not without utility and interest, is circumscribed to this humbler line of geographical investigation.

From the accounts of Mr. Coxe, and from the very able introduction to the third voyage of captain Cook, it should seem that the Russians never doubled Tshutski (more properly Shelatskoi) noss; and it appears now that the mouth of the Kovima was incorrectly laid down; yet, from comparing our author's imperfect outlines, traced by a black lead pencil, with major Shalauoff's chart, captain Billings's astronomical observations, and the sketches of the natives, Mr. Arrowsmith has been able to lay down the celebrated northern promontory with sufficient accuracy, as well as the coast between it and the mouth of the Kovima. From this comparison, it has apparently been placed in the best Russian charts too far north, the mouth of the river being little more than 69° N.

The instructions were seemingly drawn up by the empress Catharine; and she must, consequently, rank with the late unfortunate Louis as a royal geographer. The two objects of the expedition were to determine the longitude and latitude of the mouth of the Kovima, together with the situation of the great

promontory of the Tshutski, as far as East Cape, and to form an exact chart of the islands in the Eastern Ocean, extending to the coast of America. This second object was not, however, attempted; and Mr. Arrowsmith's chart, deduced from the united accounts, is the only supplement.

Our author hastens over the earlier part of his journey, in which the first circumstance that appears particularly interesting is the passage of the Uralian Chain, and the description of Irkutsk, the capital of Siberia.

'The officers here, both military and civil, are very numerous; the former, in consequence of this being the seat of government in the vicinity of the Chinese and Mongal territories; the latter, on account of the numerous courts of justice, and the necessary distributions to be made for the vast extent of its jurisdiction. I shall rate these in two classes; for rank is only a secondary recommendation here: the gentleman, who behaves himself with propriety, though poor, is completely independent, and every house is open to him; while the worthless are only attended to in the execution of their duty, and then with great reserve.

'In this town there are neither inns nor coffee-houses; but no stranger, who behaves himself with common civility, will ever be at a loss for a home. I had very good quarters allotted me by government, in which I had only resided a few days, when brigadier-general Trocpolsky invited me to accept of apartments and attendants in his house: his lady repeated the invitation, which I begged they would allow me to refuse. They then sent me every necessary to my lodging, which really compelled me to accept their first offer, to save them greater trouble. Their mansion was ever after my home; and their friendship will always remain indelibly impressed on my mind. All kinds of food are cheap, as are spirituous liquors and home-brewed beer. Wines are dear. Many luxuries are imported from China; and silks, cottons, linens, furs, nay English cloths, are moderate.

'Throughout the whole of Siberia, hospitality prevails in the extreme. A traveler is perfectly secure on the road, and certain of a hearty welcome wherever he puts up, let the cot be ever so homely. But whether this hospitality will continue when they arrive at a certain state of refinement, to which they seem advancing with incredible haste, remains for future times to discover; as also whether the expansion of ideas may not lead to the extension of territory, and other formal establishments.' p. 17.

Irkutsk lies in the neighbourhood of Lake Baykal, on the lower part of that vast chain, from which almost all the rivers of Asia descend. On this side, however, there are no rivers but what fall into the Frozen Ocean, or the sea of Kamtschatka. Our travelers—for the '*Command*' consisted of a numerous body—fall down the Lena to Yakutsk, whence they proceed to Ochotsk, which affords a good picture of a Russian town, at a distance from the seat of government. In a low misty situation, vege-

tables are scanty, and dry fish the food of cattle, particularly in the spring, when the dogs become so ravenous, from want of nutriment, as to devour each other, and the first horses that arrive. Cold, damp, and uncomfortable, a want of feeling, or an excess of duty and obedience, would alone reconcile the wretched inhabitants to their situation. A chain of mountains intervene between Irkutsk and Ochotsk, which the author describes in his journey, though they are not marked in the map, which is confined to the objects of the expedition, as we have explained it. These mountains, however, we must mention, as from them the Ochotsk descends; and, as the journey from the Gulf of Ingiga to the Kovima River was not safe, the author was obliged to repass them, in a northerly direction, till he fell in with the Indigirka River from the same chain. This he was compelled to cross in order to reach the Kovima. The mountains just mentioned run nearly from west to east; but, in a somewhat higher latitude, their direction is northerly, and even a little to the west. The account of the Tungoose is new and interesting: they in general adore dæmons, and their priests are sorcerers.

‘ The Tungoose wander over an amazing extent of ground, from the mouth of the Amour to the Baikal Lake, the rivers Angara, or Tungooska, Lena, Aldan, Yudoma, Mayo, Ud, the sea coast of Ochotsk, the Amicon, Kovima, Indigirka, Alasey, the coast of the Icy Sea, and all the mountains of these parts; constantly on the look-out for animals of the chase. They seldom reside more than six days in one place, but remove their tents, though it be to the small distance of 20 fathom, and this only in the fishing season, and during the time of collecting berries in such solitary places as are far distant from the habitation of Cossacs. Here they leave their supplies of dried fish and berries, in large boxes built on trees or poles, for the benefit of themselves and their tribes in traveling during the winter. Berries they dry by mixing them with the undigested food (*lichen*) out of the stomach of the rein-deer, making their cakes, which they spread on the bark of trees, and dry upon their huts in the sun or wind.

‘ They seem callous to the effects of heat or cold; their tents are covered with shamoy, or the inner bark of the birch, which they render as pliable as leather, by rolling it up, and keeping it for some time in the steam of boiling water and smoke.

‘ Their winter dress is the skin of the deer, or wild sheep, dressed with the hair on; a breast-piece of the same, which ties round the neck, and reaches down to the waist, widening towards the bottom, and neatly ornamented with embroidery and beads; pantaloons of the same materials, which also furnish them with short stockings, and boots of the legs of rein-deer with the hair outward; a fur cap and gloves. Their summer dress only differs in being simple leather without the hair.’ p. 47.

‘ They commonly hunt with the bow and arrow, but some have rifle-barreled guns. They do not like to bury their dead, but place

the body, dressed in its best apparel, in a strong box, and suspend it between two trees. The implements of the chase belonging to the deceased are buried under the box. Except a sorcerer is very near, no ceremony is observed; but in his presence they kill a deer, offer a part to the demons, and eat the rest.

‘They allow polygamy; but the first wife is the chief, and is attended by the rest. The ceremony of marriage is a simple purchase of a girl from her father; from 20 to 100 deer are given, or the bridegroom works a stated time for the benefit of the bride’s father. The unmarried are not remarkable for chastity. A man will give his daughter for a time to any friend or traveler that he takes a liking to; if he has no daughter, he will give his servant, but not his wives.

‘They are rather below the middle size, and extremely active; have lively smiling countenances, with small eyes; and both sexes are great lovers of brandy.

‘I asked my Tungoose, why they had not settled places of residence? They answered, that they knew no greater curse than to live in one place, like a Russian, or Yakut, where filth accumulates, and fills the habitation with stench and disease.’ P. 49.

After once more crossing the mountains, they arrive at Upper Kovima: but the wretched inhabitants of this district had only a scanty winter store of fishes, with no prospect of adding to it; since it was now the end of September, and the contractor’s provision had not reached them. It arrived, however, gradually, and they were fortunate enough to catch some fishes by means of weirs. From the twenty-second to the thirtieth of November, the spirit thermometer was from $30\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to $41\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ of Réaumur*.

‘At 37° it was almost impossible to fell timber, which was as hard as the hatchet, except it was perfectly dry; and in the greatest severity the hatchets, on striking the wood, broke like glass. . . Indeed it was impossible to work in the open air, which compelled us to make many holidays much against our inclination.

‘The effects of the cold are wonderful. Upon coming out of a warm room, it is absolutely necessary to breathe through a handkerchief; and you find yourself immediately surrounded by an atmosphere, arising from breath, and the heat of the body, which incloses you in a mist, and consists of small nodules of hoar ice. Breathing causes a noise like the tearing of coarse paper, or the breaking of thin twigs, and the expired breath is immediately condensed in the fine substance mentioned above. The northern lights are constant and very brilliant; they seem close to you, and you may sometimes hear them shoot along; they assume an amazing diversity of shapes; and the Tungoose say, that they are spirits at variance fighting in the air.’ P. 57.

* Though these degrees are said to be Réaumur’s, we suspect, from the effects, that they must be Fahrenheit’s only. If the former, the cold must be indeed intense.—REV.

The cold sometimes sunk to 43° ; and in this situation, with a scarcity of alimentary food, it is not surprising that the scurvy should appear among them. They made some excursions among the neighbouring tribes, but found them poor and ignorant. In February and March, some snow-larks and ducks made their appearance, to the great relief of the scorbutic, who soon recovered on being supplied with recent animal food. Such was a winter in the Yasashnoi, near its confluence with the Upper Kovima, in latitude only of $65^{\circ} 28' 25''$, and longitude $153^{\circ} 24'$ E. The independent Cossac of this district, we shall stay to describe.

'The lordly Cossac is only to be roused from his indolence by an order from his superior; and then he curses his fate, which has placed him under the control of others. These last of mankind, unworthy of the name, these hardly animated lumps of clay, exert the most savage barbarity over their wives, children, animals, and the poor neighbouring tribes whose miserable lot it is to pay tribute to them, or to be under the least obligations, either by drinking a glass of brandy, taking a leaf or two of tobacco, or in any other way. They receive annual supplies of articles that are necessary, ornamental, or luxurious, from the traders at Yakutsk, to supply the different tribes with; rendering, in return, furs and mammoth's tusks. Their chief endeavour with these wanderers is, to get them indebted for any article that they may stand in need of, or to procure the receipt of a trifling present (which in honour they must return with one more valuable); but if they once get in debt, then they are persecuted to the utmost, and are frequently necessitated to leave a man to work, or a woman, perhaps a daughter, as security for the payment.

'I have here, sketched a faithful picture from the very men who are sent hither to explain to the natives the benefits arising from the Christian faith, and to set an example of loyalty and obedience,' p. 66.

The river Kovima flows from the south-west to the north-east. The mountains we mentioned form its more abrupt eastern banks, and unite, at no great distance, from the gulf of Ingiga with the chain, which constitutes the peninsula of Kamtschatka.

With the ships built during the winter on the Upper Kovima, the voyagers sailed down the river, and proceeded in the gulf of Kovima, very near the 170th degree of east longitude. Ice then appeared, and captain Billings determined to return; but so little of the spirit of enterprise, or persevering resolution in the attainment of an object, we have seldom seen in any mariners. We could scarcely suppose captain Billings to have been the companion of captain Cook.

'To conclude the detail of this short excursion, I shall subjoin the following remarks: The coast of the Isy Sea is moderately high, CRIT. REV. Vol. 37. January, 1803. C

formed by projecting promontories and shallow bays, exposed to every wind except the south. The mountains are covered in different places with snow; which melting, produces small torrents rushing into the sea. They are composed of granite, quartz, and a hard black stone; and produce moss; a kind of vetch, the root of which is edible; creeping willow; and birch, not exceeding ten inches in height. The shores are covered with drift wood nearly to Barannoi Kamen, but no farther east. Along the shore are numerous remains of huts, and places where fires have been, which, in all probability, have been made and left by different hunters.

‘The quadrupeds that we saw were rein-deer, pretty numerous; bears, but none white; wolves, foxes, stone fox, wild sheep, and the whistling marmot. The birds were, gulls of several sorts, ravens, hawks, black-headed buntings, snow-larks, a few partridges, geese, ducks, and divers.

‘The productions of the sea are very few. We frequently hauled the seine, but only once caught the seld (herring) and muksoon (a small species of salmon). We saw several belluga, seals, and one whale, but no traces of shell-fish of any kind. The water was fresh to a considerable distance; the ice we frequently tried, but found it brackish, with neither ebb nor flow. The currents were very irregular, seldom setting any one way longer than the wind blew, at the unsettled rates of half a mile, a mile, and three miles and a half, per hour.

‘The atmosphere was cold and chilly, the greatest heat that we experienced being while at anchor close in with the land in Wolves’ Bay on the 15th July, when we had several claps of thunder. We had a gentle south-east breeze, and calms; and while the wind blew, the thermometer rose to 14° and 16° above the freezing point of Réaumur. During the intervening calms, it sunk to 6° , 7° , and 8° . The coldest day was the 12th July, the thermometer being then 2° below the freezing point. It frequently indicated 1° above 0 at the time when our rigging was incrustated with ice.

‘The fogs here are very remarkable, continually hovering above the ice at no great height. At a distance they appear like islands in a haze; sometimes like vast columns of smoke. Once, in particular, we thought that the Tshutski had made signal-fires for us; but on a nearer approach we discovered our mistake.

‘I observed the horizon to be most clear in the coldest weather, and am inclined to think that this navigation ought to be undertaken about the first of August. The more success is to be expected, from the testimony of the hunters and others who visit these parts, that the ice never breaks up until St. Elias’ day, the 20th July, Old Style (or the 31st July, New Style”); and I think it necessary to remark here, that my dates are all Old Style, according to the custom of Russia.

‘The estuary of the river Kovima at Shalauoff’s winter buildings, by exact reckonings of bearings, course, and time, from places where observations were taken in the Icy Sea, and from Neizabai Ostrog, forwards and backwards, I fix in latitude $69^{\circ} 16'$, longitude $166^{\circ} 10'$; variation of the compass $17^{\circ} 30'$ east.

‘The following is the result of my remarks and inquiries during

my stay at Neizshni Kovima:—I observed swallows swarming together under the eaves of the church, chirping very much, particularly on the 2d August; and on the third there was not one to be found, nor had any body seen them depart. I was informed, that they made their appearance about Tzarivoi day (21st May), and departed on the (days of Spass) 2d and 6th August, never staying beyond the latter date; the red-breast remains a day or two longer than the white. The snow-bunting, the first bird that appears, is seen about the middle of March feeding on the seeds of grass on the sandy shores of the river, and about the roots of bushes where the sun first melts the snow: different flights pursue each other in their migration for about a month; eagles follow close upon them. Swans, geese, and ducks, arrive toward the end of April, and continue about the neighbouring lakes and rivers till the beginning of September. The river is frozen over about the 20th of September, and opens about the 24th May, when it deluges the low country. The water does not retreat within its bounds till the end of June.

‘On the 25th November the sun sets until the 1st January, when it again appears above the horizon; and this is the time of the severest cold.’ p. 78.

The minuter details, which intervened between the later events and the voyage, in order to ascertain the situation of the islands interposed between the Asiatic and American continents, need not detain us. Our author interrogated Lachoff, respecting his discovery of three islands to the north of Swatof Noss, but could gain little satisfactory information. The government thought his discovery interesting, and meriting some further inquiry. The vast unwieldy extent of the Russian empire requires, however, no accession to its dominions on the north; and the discovery could only be useful from the number of mammoths’-teeth found there, which seem to have been considerable. The islands are now neglected.

The account of the Yakuti is not uninteresting, but incapable of abridgement. It is, however, worth remarking, that, as usual, they migrated from the east, pressed on by a more powerful and warlike nation, till they found refuge on the banks of those rivers which fall into the Frozen Ocean. Their religion is a Manichæan system, not without traces of a purer source. The customs, ceremonies, employments, &c. of the Yakuti, furnish an entertaining narrative; but it admits of no application respecting their origin or connexion. The population of these tribes seems to diminish.

The voyagers winter in Kamtschatka, which they find a much more comfortable residence than the mouth of the Kovima. They built a vessel, to accompany them, from the wood in the centre of the peninsula, near the source of the river Kamtschatka. The author’s account, however, is not very clear, as it seems partly to refer to the mouth of the Kamtschatka

in a much higher latitude. The former vessel, built at Ochotsk, was lost, seemingly by the obstinacy and temerity of captain Billings, and the ignorance of the pilot; while even the flag-sloop, the *Glory of Russia*, narrowly escaped the breakers. The direction of the 'Command' is not afterwards pointed out with sufficient clearness; but they seem to have followed a south-western course through the Aleutian chain to the island of Kodiak, at the entrance of Cook's inlet. In this course, we meet with few remarks peculiarly interesting. They stay for some time at Oonalashka, and at Kodiak, in Prince William's Sound; but add little to our knowledge of the manners and customs of the inhabitants. - The Russian establishments are chiefly subservient to the fur-trade, and scarcely merit our notice. It seems probable, from this account, that the projecting Cape of Alyaska, which separates Prince William's Sound from Bristol Bay, is nearly divided opposite to Kodiak. It contains, in the middle, a lake, which, with a short carrying-place, connects the two bays. The description of the sea-lion, and ursine seal, we shall transcribe.

'The sea-lion, called by the Russians sivootsha, is the strongest and largest of the seal kind; covered with dark coloured coarse hair, which is very thick and long about the neck and shoulders; the hind part is tapering, with smooth short hair. The largest is about eight feet long. They copulate and pass every night on some rock by themselves, one male and a number of females, driving away, or killing, every other species of animal that may approach them. The males have frequently very desperate engagements, and the conqueror is immediately joined by all the females. They are extremely bold, and will attack men if disturbed on the rocks. They have a small white spot on the temples, nearly as large as a half-crown piece; and this is the only place about them vulnerable by arrows, which hardly pierce the skin in other parts; but, if poisoned, they penetrate deep enough to infuse the baneful quality. The meat of these animals is cut in thin shreds, and dried by the hunters, who esteem it good eating. I thought it bad and fishy; but the head, which is equal in size to that of a large ox, I thought very good, if well stewed, and eaten with sarana and other edible roots. The second species is the kotic, or ursine-seal: the largest are about six feet long, covered with beautiful silvery grey hairs, of the colour of the Siberian squirrel, having a soft downy under fur, resembling brown silk. The young kotic are extremely playful in the water; the head very nearly resembles that of a lamb with long ears; and they live upon rock-weeds. The flesh of the young ones is well tasted; but the colour is blue, and unpleasant to the eye. These swarm together in great herds on the low islands, and are killed by being struck just above the nose with a short bludgeon. When they find themselves in danger, they attempt to bite. When very young, the fur is of a beautiful short glossy black, which

changes to silvery when they grow up; and when they become very old, they are almost white.' p. 179.

The breed of the sea-otter is almost extinct in the western islands, and perhaps will soon be lost even on the American coast. In compensation, however, strata of coals are extensively scattered in many parts of Asia, and some are even within reach of exportation.

The transactions in Prince William's Sound are not of great importance; but, from some circumstances, it seems clearly ascertained that Cape St. Elias, of Bering, is not the southern point of Montague's, but of Kay's Island.

'This native farther told us, that at the north extremity of Kay's Island, there was a bay sheltered from the wind; that the entrance at low water was as deep as his double paddle (which is about seven foot); and that there are runs of fresh water into it, but no great rivers. A very considerable river, however, falls into the sea a day's journey north of our anchorage, up which the natives travel 14 days to the residence of a different nation, the people of which supply them with knives, copper kettles, and instruments, and make their canoes. That these people trade with others farther inland, and obtain from them knives and other articles; but that his nation never go farther than 14 days' journey. That the articles of their trade are, the skins of sea-lions, for boats; oil of sea animals; small shells; and muscle-shells for points to arrows; and that these were a very powerful and warlike people.

'Another observation of his, I think it very necessary to mention: it was a positive assertion, that there were straits and islands as far as we could see; and that to the south-east there was "a great salt water," with many entrances to it. I repeatedly asked the question, and could not be mistaken in the answer; and I would most willingly have stayed on the coast alone, to explore these unknown parts from tribe to tribe, until I had lost myself, or found my way to Europe through some of these cranny passages. I am aware, that I was thought a madman for it; but this madness, this enthusiastic confidence, would, I am certain, have assisted my success; nor would I have left unexplored a river of which we had such confirmed accounts, without good reason for it; for I never met with any men that would refuse assistance to one individual, who, without the means of being their enemy, was at all times in their power. Over and above all this, I declare, that I have complete confidence in a Supreme Being, who governs every thought, and inspires means of expression to secure the devotee in exploring his wisdom.' p. 195.

We insert this passage, as a characteristic trait of the author, and as some proof of the accuracy of the information he seems to have received. Captain Vancouver has shown that 'the great salt water,' and the many entrances to it, are the indentations of the sea in this latitude, and the sound to the east of Quadra and Vancouver's Island.

After finishing the second ship, and again wintering in Kamtschatka, captain Billings proceeds to the west; and, though one object of the expedition was the survey of the islands between Asia and America, he passes them cursorily, and determines not to approach the American continent again; abandoning every expectation of signalling himself and country by discoveries which the liberality of the government had, at an immense expense, put within his reach. In the entire course, from west to east, through the whole chain of these islands, we scarcely meet with a single circumstance meriting notice; for we cannot depend on the longitudes; scarcely, we fear, on the latitudes. It is an apparently accidental remark, that, from the northern point of Oonalashka, an island at no great distance from the projecting point of Alayaska, formerly noticed, to Gore's Island, the sea shoals from eighty to forty fathoms, and from the Aleutan to Clerk's Island, to twenty-four fathoms, which, compared with other observations, seems to show that the whole sea, north of the Aleutan islands, has been gained from the land. We mention this as an additional argument, though we think it by no means decisive, for those who derive the population of America from Asia. On the north-west of Gore's Island is a smaller one, considered by captain Cook as a part of the former. An account of a whale, which affords an alimentary sustenance, we shall transcribe.

'One species of whale is frequently cast on shore both on these islands (the Aleutan) and on the coast of Kamtschatka, which the natives never eat, but only use the fat to burn. They know no difference in its appearance; but observe that neither gulls, nor any bird of prey, or fox, will eat of it. They say, that the Russian hunters have used it for food; that its fat turns in the stomach to an oil of so subtila a nature, as to pass through all the pores of the body, while the fleshy parts are emitted in an undigested state; and that if those who have eaten it have formerly had wounds or ulcers, although these have been cured for years, they break out afresh. Several of the hunters told me, that they had eaten of this whale, and that the account which the natives gave of the subtileness of the fat, and the undigested state in which the more substantial parts passed through them, was true; and that some of their companions, who had been cured of the venereal distemper, became again violently affected with that dismal disease, merely from this food. The same property, however, is attributed to the flesh of whales in general.' P. 224.

In the track towards Clerk's Island, the sea still shoaled till, on its south, it was little more than six fathoms. All around, the islands appeared numerous; but the navigators were more intent on their safety than urged by curiosity; and they with difficulty avoided being embayed in this island, or rather cluster

of islands. They escaped, however, to the continent of America, and landed there; but made few interesting observations. The inhabitants of this part were of the Tschutski race. They reached thence the Bay of St. Lawrence on the Asiatic coast.

The residence of the navigators among the Tschutski was short, and afforded little of novelty or interest. The inhabitants of this very remote quarter of the old world are Asiatics, and their manners almost exclusively Tartarian: the resident tribes are considered as of inferior race, and the wanderers only truly independent. Captain Billings, with a proportion of the 'Command,' proceeds in his object by land; the others, with our author, return and winter at Oonalashka. The account of their winter's arrangement, or the means employed by M. Sauer for preventing the scurvy, are of little importance; and the descriptions of the animals and fishes are too general and indiscriminate to be valuable. What may appear more interesting, we shall transcribe.

'The morning of the 1st of April 1792 being clear, I roved about the south side of the mountains to enjoy the sun, which we had not seen ten times since our arrival on this island. During my walk, I saw, at the entrance to one of the mouseholes, a considerable quantity of edible roots: these consisted of makarshine, sarana, and another root unknown to me, about the size of a coffee-bean (but few of them): the quantity might be about ten pounds weight, thus brought into the sun to dry by the mice, more provident than the human part of the inhabitants of this island. I also noticed, for the first time, that the sweet plant of Kamtshatka, the kutagernik, or wild angelica, the broad-leaved sorrel, and kiprey, were breaking through the earth. The other productions of the island are, the ground willow, already described (but not a single tree of any denomination whatever, nor does any of the islands west of Kadiak produce a tree of any kind: this I can positively assert): two berry-bearing bushes, the tshernika and golubnika, about eighteen inches high, on the southern side of the mountains, and in such places as are sheltered from the north winds; the mountains also produce the shikshu, or siecha, and wortle-berry. The valleys yield raspberries, white, large, and of a watery taste. The edible roots are, sarana, makarshina, and the root of the lupin; this plant bears a more beautiful flower than in Europe; the kutagernik is sometimes used for food, mixed with fish spawn, I believe on account of its bitter flavour. Wild mustard was plenty about the old habitations. The grass is coarse and rushy; I am inclined, however, to think its quality succulent; for it appears to me of the same kind as grows about the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul in Kamtshatka, of which the cattle are very fond, and it fattens them extremely. The soil is not deep, but black and fine, unmixed with clay or loam. It was with great difficulty that we procured, near the source of a rivulet, a sufficient quantity of clay to use as cement to our ovens, built with the stones collected on the sea-shore. Here are no rivers;

but several rivulets, or small rills of water, run into the sea. There are two extinguished volcanoes on this island; and near one of these there was formerly a hot spring, but it is now buried under stones fallen from the mountain, which produces abundance of native sulphur. Earthquakes are frequent, and, by the account of the natives, sometimes very violent.

The sea produces, beside the fish already mentioned, whales, grampusses (*kosatki*), porpoises (*swinki*), the sea lion (*sivutsha*), and the ursine seal (*kotic*); the two latter used to pass this island in great herds late in the autumn; but they have not appeared the two last years, which I attribute to the havoc made among them by the hunters on the islands discovered by Pribuiloff to the north of Oonashika. Sea otters are almost forgotten here; but they sometimes appear on the rocky islands off Atcha.

I shall now return to our society. We had but little to do during the present year. Our foraging parties met with very ill success, although they were of material assistance with the little firewood that they obtained. They could not shoot any game, which I ascribe to their being too numerous and noisy; for I was successful when I went out alone, but found the wild fowl exceedingly shy. We experienced a constant succession of mists and fogs; sometimes during the night the stars appeared; we had frequent gales of wind, and very strong, and encountered one hurricane, which, probably owing to the surrounding lofty mountains, acted like a whirlwind upon our vessels, carried the Black Eagle on shore, and, catching the *Slava Russia*, all her cables parted like pack-thread at one instant; but, notwithstanding she was at the mercy of the gale, and in great motion in the eddy of the wind, its opposite currents only drove her a short distance along the basin, and back again. We expected her every moment on the rocks; the violence of the hurricane, however, abated, and we again got her to the old moorings, without having received any damage. Several of our men were laid up with the scurvy towards the end of the year, and we buried one young man, whose death was occasioned by this disorder; he had resided on shore from the time of our arrival. p. 166.

During the winter's residence, however, the scurvy increased considerably, and greatly lessened their little crew, debilitating those who survived. They left the island, after a melancholy residence of eight months and sixteen days, having buried seventeen of their stoutest hands, and been cheered by the sight of the sun only eighteen times, without a single clear day. The customs and religion of the Aleutans are described shortly, and are not peculiarly interesting. The mode of hunting is also of little real importance. Our author returned to Kamtschatka; and we cannot give a more conspicuous view of the miserable state of that colony, than by the following commercial adventure.

Notwithstanding we were as silent as possible on board, with a

view of surprising the inhabitants when the weather became a little clear, we had not lain long before we heard a boat rowing towards the vessel; and were shortly after amazed at seeing an English pinnace coming along-side, with captain Charles William Barkley in it, whose vessel, the *Alcyon*, from Bengal, was at anchor in the inner harbour on a trading voyage. His cargo consisted of articles that were invaluable in this part of the world; particularly in a port so eligibly situated for encouraging commercial undertakings; namely, iron in bars, anchors, cables, and cordage, with various kinds of ironmongery wares, and a considerable stock of rum. Notwithstanding this, the commander of the port having neither authority nor resolution to secure a purchase for account of government; and the traders of this peninsula (who style themselves merchants) being merely a set of roving pedlars, without either capital or credit (and, what is still worse, without principles to secure either); captain Barkley was necessitated to take these articles back again, although they were offered at less than one third of the charges of transporting such commodities from the manufactories in Siberia.

A man who has resolution to strike out a new line of commerce, or rather to seek a new source of trade, in parts of the world so little known as are these regions, at the same time unacquainted with the language and with the wants of the inhabitants, is rather threatened with loss, than flattered with prospects of profit, in the first attempt; and nothing short of enthusiastic hope of future advantages can compensate for the degree of anxiety that he must suffer. Such a man, most certainly, merits all the encouragement that the government can give him, which is sure to be eventually benefited by his success. Considering these circumstances, and that the two vessels employed in our expedition were in the greatest need of entire new rigging, anchors, &c. the present favourable opportunity of serving captain Barkley by clearing his ship was a secondary consideration, compared to the advantages which government would have derived from so valuable an acquisition of the most necessary articles that the port could possess. This I represented to the governor of the port, and to the commanding officers of our expedition; but both equally feared to act without positive orders.' p. 278.

We left captain Billings attempting to pursue the objects of the expedition by land; but he was as unfortunate in this, as timid and unenterprising in his coasting attempts. The Tschutski plundered, insulted, and abused him and his party, scarcely permitting them to take a single memorandum, even when their fingers were not benumbed with frost, nor a single observation or measure. They approached the sea-coast only at the bays of Melshikma and Klutshenie; the latter of which is in the neighbourhood of Cape North. A dreadful earthquake occurred during our author's temporary residence in Kamtschatka, which is well described, but offers no new phenomenon.

An account of the peninsula of Kamtschatka follows, which is peculiarly clear and distinct. The point, as may be sup-

posed, is mountainous; and an undivided ridge proceeds through nearly three degrees of latitude. The mountain here divaricates, and forms the highest ground of the peninsula. From this ground, the rivers fall into the bay of St. Peter and St. Paul, on the eastern side, and into the sea of Ochotsk on the west. Here also arises the river of Kamtschatka, which, running along the high table land of the peninsula in a sinuous course, to a considerable extent, falls into the Eastern Sea at the cape, to which it gives its own name.

' From this place ' (the divarication of the mountains) ' the face of the country assumes the appearance of extreme fertility. The valley widens, and the space between the mountains east and west is at Virchni Kamtschatka 40 miles. The soil is deep and rich, composed of black earth, mixed with fine black ashes from the burning mountains, and fine iron sand, which adheres to a magnet, and forges well with bar-iron, but used alone is very brittle.

' The productions of nature are, a small kind of wild black cherry (tsheromka), in great abundance; the wood of which, being particularly hard, is used by the Kamtschadals for their guiding sticks to the sledges: the thickest trees that I have seen are nine or ten inches in circumference. Firs, common pine and larch trees of extraordinary size, with birch, poplar, asp, and mountain-ash, clothe the mountains to their summit. The underwoods are, currant, dog-rose, hawthorn, alder, and bushes producing berries.

' The climate is very different from that of the southern and northern parts of the peninsula, the valley being completely sheltered from the sea-breezes that chill the air in other parts, and prove a great check to vegetation, which commences here in the month of March. The scenery is beautiful beyond description, the river meandering through the midst of the valley, from 50 to 250 yards wide, and from 8 to 15 feet deep, and being replete with trout and every species of salmon in the season. This valley is 180 miles in length, frequently opening prospects of the Tolbatshinak, a lofty double-headed mountain, constantly emitting an immense column of black smoke; while the second volcano, Klutshesfskoi, towering to an incredible height, illuminates the clouds with its blaze, and affords a view awfully grand.' p. 290.

The western coast is uniformly low and sandy; and the sea shallow, the depth decreasing a fathom in a mile. The eastern chain of rocks projects into the sea, rendering the shore bold and rugged. The inlets are apparently numerous, but generally blocked up by reefs of rocks. Immense masses of stone are scattered at vast distances; and the depth of the sea varies—probably from this cause—often suddenly from thirty to ninety fathoms.

The bay of Avatska is peculiarly convenient and advantageous; the fishes numerous, particularly, in their season, herrings and salmon. Four species of salmon arrive in succe-

sion. The following circumstance, relating to herrings, is new:

‘ On the 7th June, in the inner harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul, I observed, at the flood tide, a considerable number of herrings swimming round in circles of about a fathom in diameter. Seeing them continue in this particular manner, I approached very near them, and remarked, in each of the circles, one fish very close to the ground, upon the weeds, and apparently without motion. I could not account for this peculiarity in their swimming, but thought that the weeds about the herring in the middle became of a very lively yellow colour. When the tide ebbed, and left these places dry, all the weeds, stones, sticks, &c. were covered with spawn about half an inch thick, which the dogs, gulls, crows, and magpies, were devouring with great avidity. These shoals of herrings, which are pursued by seals, cod, &c. come in spring and in the autumn; there is, however, a considerable difference in their size; and I believe the spring glut are the largest fish. The natives and other inhabitants ensnare a great quantity in autumn for their dogs.’
P. 299.

The description of one of the most singular hot springs—another Geyser, in a climate equally inclement—deserves notice. The situation is on the western coast, near the extremity of the peninsula.

‘ Opalski, or Osernoi, situated nearly midway between the Lopatka and Bolshoi retsk, about 15 miles south of the Kamtschadal village of Yavinsk, surrounded by mountains, and at no great distance from the volcano of Opalsk. They occupy a valley of considerable extent, and are scattered to the distance of six miles, some parts of which produce detached birch trees, the sweet plant, &c.; but in general the soil is barren, composed of different coloured marl, and large stones which appear to have been scattered by eruptions of some volcano. The largest hot spring is at the foot of one of the mountains; and we heard the noise that it made at the distance of near a mile before we came to it. It is about six fathom in circumference, boiling up to a considerable height; the middle appears like a cauldron; and a piece of beef placed in it was very well boiled in a short time: all round, it bubbles up between large stones; it then divides into two streams, which descend over stones, and unite at the bottom with a small rivulet formed by the other springs to the north: they flow a little way to the south, then turn westward into the lake Osernoi. About the border of these springs, and the rivulet which they form, we observed petrified, or rather calcarised, foliage of the sweet plant, birch leaves, sticks, &c. of a beautiful whiteness; but so extremely delicate in their texture, that we could not preserve any, even in cotton; for they mouldered to dust. The Kamtschadals suppose this to be the habitation of some demon, and, make a trifling offering to appease his wrath; without which, they say, he sends very dangerous storms. Our naturalist and Mr. Varonin, who ascended to these springs in 1790, expe-

rienced a whirlwind, which tore their tent, and scattered its contents about, many of which were never found again. Ashes were scattered upon the snow about four inches deep, resembling coarse gunpowder, probably from the volcano Alaid (a solitary mountain in the sea, situated about 20 miles south-west of the Lopatka), which burns violently at this time (February 1793). It has at various intervals emitted smoke ever since 1790. The oldest inhabitant does not remember its having done so before, although tradition informs them of its violent eruptions.' p. 303.

The population consists of 1687 Russians, and about 1000 natives. They have adopted the Russian dresses, and the Greek religion; but they retain their language, and the memory of their former superstitions, which were, as usual, gross and barbarous, connected with dæmons, while their priests are sorcerers. They call themselves by a name denoting 'original inhabitants.'

The author's return to Petersburg, and the further account of captain Billings's investigation of the coast by land, afford nothing peculiarly interesting. We remarked, however—in our review of Pérouse's Voyage—the peculiar features of the inhabitants of Segallien, which approached almost to European. We find similar features in the only drawing inserted of a Tschutski woman. Let naturalists account for this singular coincidence. We have been detained too long by facts to indulge in speculations. The chief value of the appendix consists in the comparative vocabularies, and the instructions at length.

Thus ended an expedition, began with views the most extensive and laudable, conducted by pusillanimity and meanness, with their natural consequences. The object of the inquiry—to the naturalist, the sailor, and the merchant—was of immense importance:—the exploring new countries, with their varied productions; the discovery of harbours and islands, in a supposed unbroken coast, and new sources of the most valuable productions of the animal kingdom. When we compare the present voyage with captain Vancouver's, it sinks into a boyish expedition with a cock-boat: when we consider the respective comparative expenses, the loss of lives, and the distress of the discoverers, the English navigators seem to have engaged in a pleasurable party, with every luxury at their command. The consequence then is obvious; and it will greatly raise the character of our country and its sailors, when we can circumnavigate the globe, and afterwards make discoveries, with comparative ease and comfort, on the coasts of the Russian empire, which the Russians themselves undertake with great labour and difficulty; and, after all, fail to accomplish. We ought to add, that the author has done all that could be expected from him. His narrative is clear and judicious. He seems never

to have neglected opportunities of information, and to have communicated with fidelity what he attained with danger and difficulty. His geographical details are peculiarly clear and accurate; and we must notice, with particular commendation, his description of the course of the rivers. The map we have already mentioned, as the work of Mr. Arrowsmith; and we need not afterwards speak of its accuracy. We regret only that it is not more full: the sheet was sufficiently extensive. The plates are numerous, apparently authentic, and well executed.

ART. III.—*General Zoölogy, or Systematic Natural History.* By George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S. &c. With Plates from the first Authorities, and most select Specimens, engraved principally by Mr. Heath. Vol. III. in Two Parts. 8vo. Large Paper 3l. 1s. 6d. Small Paper 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1802.

WE sincerely congratulate the public on the reception of this new volume of a work, vast and comprehensive in its plan; curious, authentic, and instructive, in its progress; and which promises to give a complete and masterly view of the subject in its several branches. We are highly gratified with this continuation, which brings numerous objects before us, hitherto unknown or overlooked, even by many systematic naturalists of character; while the author's unwearied diligence leads us to hope that the same indefatigable zeal will pervade the remaining tribes of animated nature. The tribes of fishes, insects, and shells, will employ his utmost attention for a series of years. So far as Dr. Shaw has proceeded, we can truly affirm, that a system of zoölogy so comprehensive, complete, and instructive, has not appeared in any language. Yet we find some causes of complaint, and shall at once mention them. With great abilities and extensive information, Dr. Shaw, we think, hesitates too often: his own opinion, on many disputed points, is cautiously held back; and he fears to decide between contending naturalists, when his decision is anxiously looked for, and would be received with respect. The plates too, though strong and impressive, are finished, in our judgement, with less elegance than those in the two former volumes. The peculiar beauty of Roesel's plates may, however, have rendered us fastidious in this branch of natural history.

The present volume contains the amphibia. These, as the title indicates, are adapted to live on land or in water, but not exclusively in each. They are either furnished with feet, or want these organs; and consequently are divided into natural families, rather than genera: tortoises, frogs, and lizards, with

feet; and serpents *without* feet. In consequence of their remaining long under water, it is not necessary that a second circulation should take place through the lungs; and the hearts of the amphibia are said to be formed of a single ventricle only. This has been lately denied: but the dispute is verbal only; for, where two ventricles have been found, the communication between them appears to be free and immediate. Our author's general account of the nature of amphibious animals cannot be curtailed without mutilation, or abridged without injury.

• The lungs of the amphibia differ widely in their appearance from those of other animals; consisting, in general, of a pair of large bladders or membranaceous receptacles, parted, in the different species, into more or fewer cancelli or subdivisions, among which are beautifully distributed the pulmonary blood-vessels, which bear but a small proportion to the vesicular part through which they ramify; whereas, in the lungs of the mammalia, so great is the proportion of the blood-vessels, and so very small are the vesicles, or air-cells, that the lungs have a fleshy rather than a membranaceous appearance. In the amphibia, therefore, the vesicular system may be said greatly to prevail over the vascular; and in the mammalia or warm-blooded animals, the vascular system to prevail over the vesicular.

• Many of the amphibia are possessed of a high degree of reproductive power, and will be furnished with new feet, tails, &c. when those parts have by any accident been destroyed. Many are highly beautiful in their colours, as well as elegant in their forms; while others, on the contrary, are, in the common acceptation of the words, extremely deformed, and of unpleasing colours. Their bodies are sometimes defended by a hard, horny shield or covering; sometimes rather by a coriaceous integument; sometimes by scales, and sometimes have no particular defence or coating; the skin being merely marked by soft, pustular warts or protuberances, more or less visible in the different species.

• The bones of the amphibia, except in a very few instances, are of a more cartilaginous nature than in either the mammalia or birds: many species are destitute of ribs, while others have those parts very numerous: some are furnished with formidable teeth; others are toothless: some are fierce and predacious; others inoffensive. Few, except among the serpent tribe, are of a poisonous nature; the general prejudice against them having arisen rather on account of their form, than from any real poisonous quality; but among the serpents we meet with some species possessed of the most dreadful poison, as well as with the power of applying it with fatal force to the animals which they attack. The number of poisonous serpents is, however, not so great as was formerly imagined; perhaps not more than a sixth part of the whole number of known species being of that character.

• Among no animals do we meet with beings of a more singular form than in the amphibia; some of which present appearances so unusual, so grotesque, and so formidable, that even the imagination of the poet or painter can hardly be supposed to exceed the realities of nature.

'The amphibia in general are extremely tenacious of life, and will continue to move, and exert many of their animal functions, even when deprived of the head itself. The experiments which have been occasionally made on these subjects, can hardly be recited without horror. The natural life of some of the amphibia, more particularly of the tortoise tribe, is extremely long; and even to the smaller tribes of frogs and lizards a considerable space seems allotted. The same is also highly probable with respect to the serpent-tribe.

'By far the major part of the amphibia are oviparous, some excluding eggs covered with a hard or calcareous shell, like those of birds; others such as are covered only with a tough skin, resembling parchment; and in many they are perfectly gelatinous, without any kind of external covering, as in the spawn of the common frog. Some few are viviparous; the eggs first hatching internally, and the young being afterwards excluded in their perfect form, as in the viper, &c. &c. In cold and temperate climates, most of the amphibia pass the winter in a torpid state; and that sometimes in a degree of cold which would seem but ill calculated for the preservation of animal life. The common large water-newt in particular is said to have been occasionally found completely imbedded in large masses of ice, in which it must have remained inclosed for a very considerable period; and yet, on the dissolution of the ice, has been restored to life.' p. 2.

We have called the genera of the amphibia 'natural families,' not from a desire of innovation, but from much reflexion on the division and arrangement of the species. Where animals or vegetables resemble each other in a considerable degree, distinction is peculiarly difficult, for this very simple and obvious reason—that nature proceeds by progressive shades: systems mark only the breaks and interruptions of these shades. When the breaks are filled up, system is at a loss. In the first family—the *testudo*—distinction is rendered more difficult by the varying size and colour of the shell in different situations, but particularly at different stages of their growth; yet, from the shape, colour, and pattern of the shell, the specific distinctions must be taken; since, from the observation of Schoepffs and Cetti, both in the marine and terrestrial species, the claws, or projecting extremities of the feet, furnish no constant specific distinction.

Much essential information is conveyed in the arrangement of the species of tortoise; and the definitions are consequently corrected.

The first species is the common tortoise—the *testudo Græca* of Linnæus—of which the amended definition is adopted from Schoepffs. The manners and mode of life of this tortoise are well described. The *testudo marginata* follows. This is the *T. graja* of Hermen, and the animal classed by the count de la Cépède as the former species. If we take the specific marks from the shells—and, after a careful consideration of the sub-

ject, there seems sufficient reason to do so—this should certainly be a new species. The *T. geometrica* L. is next described, with a suitable alteration of the definition, for the reasons just mentioned; and the radiated tortoise—the great chequered tortoise of Grew—is for similar reasons separated from the geometrical. The Indian tortoise occurs in Gmelin's edition of Linnæus; but the *T. rugosa* is now first described from a shell in the Leverian Museum, with the following definition:—
 ‘Tortoise with a black wrinkled shell, mottled and variegated with yellow, with the middle dorsal pieces subpanduriform (somewhat fiddle-shaped).’ The *T. Europea*, *carinata*, *clausa*, *sulcata*, *palustris*? (*concentrica* S.) *Picta*? *pusilla*, *scabra*? *denticulata*, *Pensylvanica*, *Caspica*, *ferox*, *scorpoidea*? (*fimbriata* Shawe), and *serpentina*, are from Linnæus, with suitable alterations and improvements in the definitions; since the specific distinctions are, as we have said, taken from the shells. Ten other species are intermixed with these, from the observations of the most distinguished naturalists, or from Dr. Shaw himself. The spotted, the areolated, and the tabular tortoise, are taken from Seba, described by Schoepffs; the *T. elegans*, from Seba; the *T. serrata*, from the Leverian Museum; the *T. galeata*, *scripta*, and *tricarinata*, from Schoepffs; the *longicollis*, a new species, from Australasia; the *granulata*, from La Cépède.

The turtles are the marine tortoises, and differ from the others by their webbed feet. Each, as we have said, can live for a time in water; and they are related as waders and swimmers among birds. The coriaceous turtle, the green esculent species, *T. mydas*, the loggerhead *T. caretta*, the *T. imbricata*, or hawksbill, are described in the System of Nature: the green-shelled and the rhinoceros-turtle may be found in La Cépède. The trunk-turtle is mentioned only by Catesby.

The frogs are a very extensive family; and they may be divided into three sections—

—‘viz. 1. Frogs, commonly so called, or *rana*, with light active bodies, and which leap when disturbed. 2. Slender-limbed frogs, *hyla*, *calamita*, or *rana arborea*; viz. such as have light bodies, very slender limbs, and toes terminating in flat, circularly expanded tips, enabling the animals to adhere at pleasure to the surface even of the smoothest bodies. Several of this division generally reside on trees, adhering by their toes to the lower surfaces of the leaves and branches. 3. Toads, *bufones*, or such as have large heavy bodies, short thick limbs, and which rather crawl than leap when disturbed.

‘It may be observed, that in the works of authors this division of the genus into three sections (which is but of late date) is not very accurately conducted; and indeed some species may be considered as of a doubtful cast, or ranking with almost equal propriety in either distribution.’ p. 96.

It is generally in the month of March that the frog deposits its ova or spawn, consisting of a large heap or clustered mass of gelatinous transparent eggs, in each of which is imbedded the embryo, or tadpole, in the form of a round, black globule. The spawn commonly lies more than a month, or sometimes five weeks, before the larvæ or tadpoles are hatched from it, and during this period each egg gradually enlarges in size, and a few days before the time of exclusion, the young animals may be perceived to move about in the surrounding gluten. When first hatched, they feed on the remains of the gluten in which they were imbedded, and in the space of a few days, if narrowly examined, they will be found to be furnished; on each side the head, with a pair of ramified branchiæ or temporary organs, which again disappear after a certain space. These tadpoles are so perfectly unlike the animals in their complete state, that a person in conversant in natural history would hardly suppose them to bear any relationship to the frog; since, on a general view, they appear to consist merely of head and tail; the former large, black, and roundish; the latter slender, and bordered with a very broad transparent finny margin. Their motions are extremely lively, and they are often seen in such vast numbers as to blacken the whole water with their legions. They live on the leaves of duckweed and other small water-plants, as well as on various kinds of animalcules, &c. and when arrived at a larger size, they may even be heard to gnaw the edges of the leaves on which they feed; their mouths being furnished with extremely minute teeth or denticulations. The tadpole is also furnished with a small kind of tubular sphincter or sucker beneath the lower jaw, by the help of which it hangs at pleasure to the under surface of aquatic plants, &c. From this part it also occasionally hangs, when very young, by a thread of gluten, which it seems to manage in the same manner as some of the smaller slugs have been observed to practise. Its interior organs differ, if closely inspected, from those of the future frog, in many respects; the intestines in particular are always coiled into a flat spiral, in the manner of a cable in miniature.

Indeed the anatomy of these animals exhibits so many singularities, that a volume might be filled with their history; but the nature of a work like the present forbids a detail of more than what is necessary for a clear general idea of the animal in its several states. When the tadpoles have arrived at the age of about five or six weeks, the hind legs make their appearance, gradually increasing in length and size; and, in about a fortnight afterwards, or sometimes later, are succeeded by the fore legs, which are indeed formed beneath the skin much sooner, and are occasionally protruded and again retracted by the animal through a small foramen on each side of the breast, and are not completely stretched forth till the time just mentioned. The animal now bears a kind of ambiguous appearance, partaking of the form of a frog and a lizard. The tail at this period begins to decrease; at first very gradually, and at length so rapidly as to become quite obliterated in the space of a day or two afterwards. The animal now ventures upon land, and is seen wandering about the brinks of its parent waters, and sometimes in such multitudes as to cover a space of many yards in extent. This is the phenomenon

which has so frequently embarrassed the minds not only of the vulgar, but even of some superior characters in the philosophic world; who, unable to account for the legions of these animals with which the ground is occasionally covered in certain spots, at the close of summer, have been led into the popular belief of their having descended from the clouds in showers.

‘As soon as the frog has thus assumed its perfect form, it feeds no longer on vegetables, but on animal food; supporting itself on small snails, worms, &c. and particularly on insects. For the reader obtaining its prey, the structure of its tongue is extremely well calculated; being so situated that the root is attached to the fore rather than the hind part of the mouth; and, when at rest, lies backwards, as if the animal were swallowing the tip. By this means the creature is enabled to throw it out to some distance from the mouth, which is done with great celerity, and the bifid and glutinous extremity secures the prey, which is swallowed with an instantaneous motion, so quick that the eye can scarcely follow it.’ p. 98.

This description is so very clear and comprehensive, that we could not, with propriety, overlook it; and the plates very strikingly illustrate the whole of the anatomy. In this genus, we need not follow the Linnæan species, but shall only point out those which Dr. Shaw has added to the list. We may, however, remark, that our author does not think the bull-frog of Catesby to be the *rana ocellata* of Linnæus; but supposes the real *R. ocellata* of the Swedish naturalist to be the same with the large Virginian frog of Catesby, the *R. pentadactyla* of Linnæus. These species are confounded also by La Cépède. The *rana ovalis*, the *cyanophlyctis*, and the *spinipes* of Schneider, follow. The blue frog is found in Australasia; and the Leverian frog, a new species, is thus defined: ‘*R. fusco-coerulea, subtus albida, supra lineâ utrinque alba alteraque abrupta, pedibus posterioribus palmatis.*’ The *R. bombina* of Linnæus is called *R. ignea* by Dr. Shaw, and more strictly defined. The *R. salsa* is a new species, denominated from its being taken in the salt-marshes of Germany, and described from the work of a German naturalist. The remarks on the tadpole of the *rana paradoxa* are too ingenious to be overlooked.

‘The tadpole of this frog, from its very large size, the strong and muscular appearance of the tail, and the ambiguous aspect which it exhibits in the latter part of its progress toward its complete or ultimate form, has long continued to constitute, as it were, the paradox of European naturalists; who, however strong and well-grounded their suspicions might be relative to its real nature, and the mistake of most describers, were yet obliged, in some measure, to acquiesce in the general testimony of those who had seen it in its native waters, and who declared it to be at length transmuted, not into a frog, but a fish! and it was even added by some, that it afterwards reverted to its tadpole form again!! That it is really no other than a frog in its larva or tadpole state, will be evident to every one who considers its

structure; and more especially, if it be collated with the tadpole even of some European frogs; for instance, that of the *Rana alliacea*, which the reader will find represented in its natural size on a plate accompanying the description of that species. Like our European tadpoles, this animal, according to the more or less advanced state in which it is found, is furnished either with all the four legs, or with only the two hinder ones: it also sometimes happens that in the largest sized of these tadpoles, exceeding perhaps the length of six or eight inches, the hind legs alone appear; while in those of far smaller size both the fore and hind legs are equally conspicuous. Specimens of these curious animals occur both in the British and Leverian Museums.

It will readily appear that the larva of this frog is larger in proportion to the complete animal than in any other species hitherto discovered. It may also be not improper to observe, that perhaps all the specimens of these very large tadpoles occurring in museums, may not be those of the *Rana paradoxa* in particular, but of some other American, African, or Asiatic frogs, as the *R. ocellata*, *marina*, &c. &c.

Dr. Gmelin, in his edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, seems to suppose that the fleshy part of the tail in this larva still remains after the animal has acquired its complete form; but this is by no means the case; no vestige of that part being visible in the perfect frog.
p. 121.

The *hylæ* are frogs with rather slender bodies, long limbs, and the tips of the toes flat, orbicular, and dilated. The first species is the *R. zebra*; *R. maxima* of the later Linnæan editions, of which the *R. boans* is a variety. The *Rana Virginiana* altera of Seba is said to be another; and the *R. squamigera* of Walbaum seems to have owed its supposed existence, according to Schneider, to a part of the skin of a snake uniting to a frog kept in the same jar of spirits. The *R. leucophyllata* is described by Schneider and M. Beyreis, in the Berlin Transactions. The *R. quadrilineata*, *castanea*, and *fasciata*, are from the work of the former naturalist. The account of the tree-frog is short but interesting; and the large tree-frog is separated from it, forming another species, under the name of the merian frog, from the circumstance of having its hinder feet webbed. The orange-frog is from Seba; and the *tinging* (better perhaps *tinged*) frog, from La Cépède. The white frog is the *hyla lactea* of Laurenti; and some other doubtful species are added from Schneider.

Toads are the next object; and the horror which their appearance excites is not supported by any real injury which they inflict. Some of our author's remarks we shall transcribe.

From the experiments of Laurenti, it appears that small lizards, on biting the common toad, were for some time disordered and paralytic, and even appeared to be dead, but in some hours were completely recovered.

‘ It is also observed, that dogs, on seizing a toad, and carrying it for some little time in their mouth, will appear to be affected with a very slight swelling of the lips, accompanied by an increased evacuation of saliva; the mere effect of the slightly acrimonious fluid which the toad on irritation exsudes from its skin, and which seems, in this country at least, to produce no dangerous symptoms in such animals as happen to taste or swallow it. The limpid fluid also, which this animal suddenly discharges when disturbed, is a mere watery liquor, perfectly free from any acrimonious or noxious qualities, and appearing to be no other than the contents of a peculiar reservoir, common to this tribe, destined for some purpose in the economy of the animals which does not yet appear to be clearly understood. The common toad may therefore be pronounced innoxious, or perfectly free from any poisonous properties, at least with respect to any of the larger animals; and the innumerable tales recited by the older writers, of its supposed venom, appear to be either gross exaggerations, or else to have related to the effects of some other species mistaken for the common toad; it being certain that some of this genus exsude from their skin a highly acrimonious fluid.

‘ The toad is, however, looked upon with great aversion by the major part of mankind, and it must be confessed, that its appearance is not captivating; yet the eyes are remarkably beautiful: being surrounded by a reddish gold-coloured iris, the pupil, when in a state of contraction, appearing transverse.

‘ It might seem unpardonable to conclude the history of this animal without mentioning the very extraordinary circumstance of its having been occasionally discovered enclosed, or imbedded, without any visible outlet, or even any passage for air, in the substance of wood, and even in that of stone or blocks of marble. For my own part, I have no hesitation in avowing a very high degree of scepticism as to these supposed facts, and in expressing my suspicions that proper attention, in such cases, was not paid to the real situation of the animal. That a toad may have occasionally latibulized in some part of a tree, and have been in some degree overtaken or enclosed by the growth of the wood, so as to be obliged to continue in that situation, without being able to effect its escape, may perhaps be granted: but it would probably continue to live so long only as there remained a passage for air, and for the ingress of insects, &c. on which it might occasionally feed; but that it should be completely blocked up in any kind of stone or marble, without either food or air, appears entirely incredible, and the general run of such accounts must be received with a great many grains of allowance for the natural love of the marvellous, the surprise excited by the sudden appearance of the animal in an unsuspected place, and the consequent neglect of minute attention at the moment, to the surrounding parts of the spot where it was discovered.’ p. 143.

We have formerly had occasion to offer some remarks on this latter subject, and shall now shortly repeat them. If we admit all the facts adduced, of which Dr. Shaw expresses a very proper scepticism, they will not amount to a proof of the toad's life. If, for instance, an animal were suddenly inclosed,

and died in a few months from the want of air, little change would be produced in centuries, because the atmosphere is excluded, and the evidence only amounts to the blood appearing fresh. The animal cannot be found alive; for it is necessarily killed by the means which contribute to his discovery*.

Of the new species, we may mention particularly the *rana alliacea*—the *bufo aquaticus allium redolens* of Roessel—whose tadpole greatly exceeds in size the perfect animal, and is eaten as a fish; the *R. mephitica*—the foetid land-toad of Roessel—whose odour is highly hepatised, of which Dr. Shaw conceives the natter-jack of the British zoölogy to be a variety. The *rana dubia* may be the *R. musica* of Linnæus; but the latter species approaches more nearly the merian frog; and we strongly suspect that this is a variety only. The singular production of the *R. pipa* merits particular attention; and indeed, in this very forbidding family, there are various species which afford subjects of curious speculation.

* It was for a long time supposed that the ova of this extraordinary animal were produced in the dorsal cells, without having been first excluded in the form of spawn; but later observations have proved that a still more extraordinary process takes place; and that the spawn after exclusion, is received into the open cells of the back, and there concealed till the young have arrived at maturity. This discovery was made by Dr. Fermin, who had an opportunity, during his residence at Surinam, to investigate the natural history of the *pipa* in a more accurate manner than had before been practicable. His account is, that the female *pipa* deposits her eggs or spawn at the brinks of some stagnant water; and that the male collects or amasses the heap of ova, and deposits them with great care on the back of the female, where, after impregnation, they are pressed into the cellules, which are at that period open for their reception, and afterwards close over them; thus retaining them till the period of their second birth, which happens in somewhat less than three months, when they emerge from the back of the parent in their complete state. During the time of their concealment, however, they undergo the usual change of the rest of this genus, being first hatched from the egg in the form of a tadpole; and gradually acquire their complete shape some time before their exclusion. This latter circumstance, which does not appear to have been known to Fermin, is confirmed by the united testimonies of Camper, Blumenbach, and Spallanzani, who have all had an opportunity of inspecting specimens of the animal in a state favourable to the examination of this

* We remember hearing, on good authority, the following circumstance respecting the poisonous nature of the toad:—An itinerant mountebank had amused, for some time, a country audience, by eating a variety of disgusting foods; and at last declared, that, if any person could produce a toad, he would eat it. A large one was soon procured, and he devoured it; but his health from that time declined, and he soon died of an atrophy. Other causes might, however, have contributed to that event. Rev.

particular. Upon the whole, it appears that there is some analogy in the process of nature with respect to the production of the young, between this animal and the opossum.

‘According to Fermin, the pipa is calculated by nature for producing but one brood of young; and, compared with the rest of the genus, it can by no means be considered as a very prolific animal; the number of young produced by the female which he observed, amounted to seventy-five, which were all excluded within the space of five days.’ p. 168.

The indistinct toad, *R. systoma*; the *R. acephala*, *semilunata*, and *melanostieta*, are described from Schneider; the *R. lentiginosa*, from Catesby; the *R. arunco*, from Molina.

The name of ‘Dragon’ appears to realise all that fancy has embodied; and we recall ‘chimæras dire,’ with St. George’s antagonist, and the monsters furnished by the legends of the nursery. It is, in fact, only a harmless lizard, provided with an expansile skin, which supports it for a time in the air.

‘It may not be improper here to add, that all the other animals described and figured in the works of some of the older naturalists, under the name of dragons, are merely fictitious beings, either artificially composed of the skins of different animals, or made by warping some particular species of the ray or skate tribe into a dragon-like shape, by expanding and drying the fins in an elevated position, adding the legs of birds, &c. and otherwise disguising the animals. Such also are the monstrous representations (to be found in Gesner and Aldrovandus) of a seven-headed dragon, with gaping mouths, long body, snake-like necks and tail, and feet resembling those of birds. These deceptions appear to have been formerly practised with some success; and misled not only the vulgar, but even men of science. Of this a curious example is said to have occurred towards the close of the seventeenth century, and is thus commemorated by Dr. Grainger, from a note of Dr. Zachary Grey, in his edition of *Hudibras*, vol. i. p. 125.

“Mr. Smith, of Bedford, observes to me, on the word *dragon*, as follows: Mr. Jacob Bobart, botany-professor of Oxford, did, about forty years ago, find a dead rat in the physic garden, which he made to resemble the common picture of dragons, by altering its head and tail, and thrusting in taper sharp sticks, which distended the skin on each side till it mimicked wings. He let it dry as hard as possible. The learned immediately pronounced it a dragon; and one of them sent an accurate description of it to Dr. Magliabechi, librarian to the grand duke of Tuscany; several fine copies of verses were wrote on so rare a subject; but at last Mr. Bobart owned the cheat; however it was looked upon as a master-piece of art; and, as such, deposited in the Museum, or Anatomy-School, where I saw it some years after.”

‘The most remarkable instance, in later times, is that of a dragon of the kind above-mentioned, which was in possession of a merchant at Hamburg, and which was considered by its proprietor as of the value of 10,000 florins; but which the penetrating eye of Linneus,

during his visit to that city, soon discovered to be a mere deception, ingeniously contrived by a dextrous combination of the skins of snakes, teeth of weecle, claws of birds, &c. being, as Linnæus himself expresses it, "*non Natura sed artis opus eximium.*" It is said that Linnæus, in consequence of this discovery, was obliged to fly from Hamburgh, in order to avoid the wrath of the enraged proprietor, who determined on a prosecution against him, as having injured the reputation of his property. An exact representation of this curious imposture is given by Seba, who, however, does not, as commonly supposed, describe it as a really existing species, but merely as so reported. It would be scarcely excusable to swell the number of plates in the present work, by an introduction of this figure, merely to elucidate the anecdote: it is therefore entirely omitted.' p. 180.

The genus *lacerta* is very extensive and varied, though strictly natural.

• This numerous genus may be divided into the following sections or sets, viz.

- 1. *Crocodyles*, furnished with very strong scales.
 - 2. *Guanas*, and other lizards, either with serrated or carinated backs and tails.
 - 3. *Cordyles*, with denticulated, and sometimes spiny scales, either on the body or tail, or both.
 - 4. *Lizards proper*, smooth, and the greater number furnished with broad square scales or plates on the abdomen.
 - 5. *Chamaeleons*, with granulated skin, large head, long missile tongue, and cylindric tail.
 - 6. *Gekkos*, with granulated or tuberculated skin, and lobated feet, with the toes lamellated beneath.
 - 7. *Scinks*, with smooth, fish-like scales.
 - 8. *Salamanders, newts, or efts*, with soft skins, and of which some are water-lizards.
 - 9. *Snake-Lizards*, with extremely long bodies, very short legs, and minute feet.
- The above divisions neither are, nor can be, perfectly precise, since species may occur which may with almost equal propriety be referred to either of the neighbouring sections; but in general they will be found useful on an investigation of the species.' p. 183.

The account of the crocodile is very entertaining; but so much has been said on this subject, that it is no longer new, though well-compacted and comprehensive. What relates to the animal's power of moving its upper jaw is ably explained. The articulation of the head with the neck, and of the under-jaw with the head, are similar; and when the crocodile opens its vast jaws, it moves the upper jaw by drawing back the head. Dr. Shaw has not remarked, that this animal is now confined chiefly to Upper Egypt, seldom appearing below the cataracts.

With Blumenbach and Linnæus, our author considers the alligator, or American crocodile, as a distinct species. We are

surprised that he has not mentioned the wonderful accounts of Bartram, which we once had occasion to record.

The guanas are next described; and the 'lézard cornu,' first mentioned by La Cépède, is supposed by Dr. Shaw to be a variety of the iguana, the great American guana. The *lacerta Amboinensis*—the Amboina guana—is copied from Schlosser. This, with some other of the guanas, is a nutritious food, and even reckoned among the delicacies. The *lacerta basiliscus* is a harmless animal: its fatal look having no existence, but in the poet's imagination.

The *lacerta muricata* is a species from Australasia, described by Mr. White. The bicarinated lizard is confounded by La Cépède, and probably by Linnæus, with the *dracæna*. The *L. varia* of New South Wales is, in our author's opinion, a variety of the *L. monitor*. The *L. Acanthura* is a new species, described from a specimen in the British Museum: it seems nearly allied to the quetzpaleo of Seba, or the azure lizard, which is supposed to represent the *azurea* of Linnæus. The *L. lophura* is described from specimens in the British and J. Hunter's Museum: it much resembles the teguixin, or variegated lizard. The *lacerta bimaculata* L. is supposed to be a variety of the *L. principalis*, and the roquet of La Cépède to be another. The Linnæan species we have omitted to mention, lest the article be too extensive; and we shall continue to follow the same plan.

The cordyles form the next section, but furnish no new species. The lizards proper follow. The scaly lizard of the British Zoology is considered as a variety of the green lizard; and the red-headed—*la tête-rouge* of La Cépède—is a new species; not mentioned in the System of Nature. The *L. tanio-lata*—the ribbon-lizard of White—is from Australasia. The *L. quinquelineata* is a native of Carolina, noticed by Dr. Garden; and the green Carolina lizard of Catesby is inserted as a variety of *L. bullaris*. Many of the remaining species of this section approach in habit the geckos. The *L. Platura* is from Australasia, described by Mr. White.

The chamæleons furnish no new species; but we shall select from our author what philosophical observation has furnished respecting the supposed change of colour of these lizards.

‘ Few animals have been more celebrated by natural historians than the chameleon, which has been sometimes said to possess the power of changing its colour at pleasure, and of assimilating it to that of any particular object or situation. This, however, must be received with very great limitations; the change of colour which the animal exhibits varying in degree, according to circumstances of health, temperature of the weather, and many other causes, and consisting chiefly in a sort of alteration of shades from the natural

greenish or blueish grey of the skin into pale yellowish, with irregular spots or patches of dull red; but not justifying the application of the Ovidian distich.

“ Non mihi tot cultus numero comprehendere fas est :
Adjicit ornatus proxima quæque dies.”

• No numbers can the varying robe express,
While each new day presents a different dress.

• It is also to be observed, that the natural or usual colour of chameleons varies very considerably; some being much darker than others, and it has even been seen approaching to a blackish tinge. An occasional change of colour is likewise observable, though in a less striking degree, in some other lizards.’ P. 253.

• The general or usual changes of colour in the chameleon, so far as I have been able to ascertain from my own observation of such as have been brought into this country in a living state, are from a blueish ash-colour (its natural tinge) to a green and sometimes yellowish colour, spotted unequally with red. If the animal be exposed to a full sunshine, the unilluminated side generally appears, within the space of some minutes, of a pale yellow, with large roundish patches or spots of red brown. On reversing the situation of the animal the same change takes place in an opposite direction; the side which was before in the shade now becoming either brown or ash-colour, while the other side becomes yellow and red; but these changes are subject to much variety both as to intensity of colours and disposition of spots.’ P. 256.

The geckos are augmented by several new species. The tokai of Siam, described by the Jesuit missionaries, is supposed to be a variety of the common gecko. The geckotte of La Cépède is followed by the *L. perfoliata* of Schneider. The latter seems to be inserted in Gmelin's edition of Linnæus, under the trivial name of *repicanda*. Dr. Shaw however suspects them, with great reason, to be the same animal. The Chinese gecko is described from Osbeck; and the fimbriated—*la tête-plate* of La Cépède—from Schneider. The French naturalist thinks that this species connects the *chamæleons* and the *water-newts*. The *L. tetradactyla*—*la sarroube* of La Cépède—resembles, in a great degree, the *L. fimbriata*, but is placed by the count among the *salamanders*: by Schneider and our author, it is considered as a distinct species. The Schneiderian gecko is taken from the works of the naturalist honoured by our author by affixing his name as the trivial one; and the *L. Sparmanniana* seems to occur in the Linnæan system, as *L. Geitje*. The *L. Sputator* is also described by Sparmann, and does not occur in the System of Nature.

Of the scinks, we find also some species not generally known in this country. The *L. longicauda* is taken from Seba: the

L. mabouya from la Cépède. The *L. occidua* is the *galliwaspi* of Sloane, of which there is a variety from Australasia.

The salamanders, newts, or efts, form the next section; and, from the account of the well-known salamander, we shall extract some observations not uninteresting.

* The salamander, so long the subject of popular error, and of which so many idle tales have been recited by the more ancient naturalists, is an inhabitant of many parts of Germany, Italy, France, &c. but does not appear to have been discovered in England. It delights in moist and shady places, woods, &c. and is chiefly seen during a rainy season. In the winter it lies concealed in the hollows about the roots of old trees; in subterraneous recesses, or in the cavities of old walls, &c. The salamander is easily distinguished by its colours; being of a deep shining black, variegated with large, oblong, and rather irregular patches of bright orange-yellow, which, on each side the back, are commonly so disposed as to form a pair of interrupted longitudinal stripes: the sides are marked by many large, transverse wrinkles, the intermediate spaces rising into strongly marked convexities; and the sides of the tail often exhibit a similar appearance: on each side the back of the head are situated a pair of large tubercles, which are in reality the parotid glands, and are thus protuberant not only in some others of the lizard tribe, but in a remarkable manner in the genus *rana*: these parts, as well as the back and sides of the body, are beset in the salamander with several large open pores or foramina, through which exudes a peculiar fluid, serving to lubricate the skin, and which, on any irritation, is secreted in a more sudden and copious manner under the form of a whitish gluten, of a slightly acrimonious nature: and from the readiness with which the animal, when disturbed, appears to evacuate it, and that even occasionally to some distance, has arisen the long-continued popular error of the salamander's being enabled to live uninjured in the fire, which it has been supposed capable of extinguishing by its natural coldness, and moisture: the real fact is, that, like any of the cold and glutinous animals, as snails, &c. it, of course, is not quite so instantaneously destroyed by the force of fire as an animal of a drier nature would be. p. 291.

This animal is viviparous; and its young are seemingly excluded in the water, provided with temporary fins: it is perfectly innoxious to large animals or the human race. A particular description of the Leverian water-newt, a species hitherto unknown, from the Leverian Museum, is subjoined. No history is annexed to the specimen, nor is its native place known. Snake-lizards form the last family; of which the first, the *L. chalcides* of Linnæus, is well known; and the chalcide of count la Cépède seems to be a variety of it; though we suspect it should form another species. This family approaches very nearly to the serpents, and is in general known to Linnæus, except the *L. lumbricoides*, first described by La Cépède under the title of *La Cannelle*.

The second part of the volume must be reserved for another

opportunity ; but we cannot conclude this article, without again expressing our warmest approbation of the execution. Many will find satisfaction from the author's very pleasing and simply-elegant descriptions ; but few—except those who have wandered in the labyrinth of hasty inaccurate observers, though assisted by the occasional elucidations of Schneider and Laurenti—will perceive the peculiarly minute and philosophical discriminations of Dr. Shaw, and properly appreciate the real value of the work,

ART. IV.—*The New Annual Register, or general Repository of History, Politics, and Literature, for the Year 1801. To which is prefixed, the History of Knowledge, Learning, and Taste, in Great Britain, during the Reign of King Charles II.—Part V.* 8vo. 14s. Boards, Robinsons. 1802.

AN Annual Register rises greatly in value and importance above the diurnal and monthly vehicles of intelligence. Compiled at a greater distance from the occurrences, passion and prejudice in some degree disappear, and calm reflexion is happily enabled to supply their place ; while a judicious selection separates the more trifling from the more important objects, and gives to each its comparative value. In some points, the conductor anticipates the historian, brings together events widely distant in their scenes, and compares the probable consequences in their most remote bearings. If such be the advantages of these more matured reflexions on the passing scenes of common life, or the more important events of the political world, the progressive state of literature is represented, in such returning publications, with peculiar interest and instruction. Each volume, connected with those which precede it, gives one uninterrupted picture of the labours of philosophers, poets, metaphysicians, travelers, &c. for an extended period. If it be urged that the time is often too short to sooth the angry brow of the disappointed politician, or to dissipate the mist of prejudice from minds which have long indulged a favourite train of ideas ; yet, in literature, it is sufficient, in many instances, to establish some foundation for an accurate discrimination of real merit, and to distinguish between the tinsel which may excite popular applause, and the real splendor which irradiates works of true genius. We have allowed, in effect, that party prejudice is so deeply rooted as to be removed with difficulty in the space of two years ; and the conduct of the historians of the present work, and its rival support the opinion. Yet the delay has some effect on liberal minds ; and the experienced writer of successive annual records will begin to suspect, on a candid reflexion, that he may

be wrong, especially if he is warmly interested. : His will of course be more guarded; and, to be aware of the bias, is the best method of guarding against its influence. The authors of the history, in the present volume, seem to feel that they have been too much heated, if we may judge from their having become the panegyrists of several of the present ministers who do not differ in many points from *some* of their predecessors. A little of the old leaven, nevertheless, remains; and a peculiar, a suspicious, coldness pervades the narrative of the events, when the plans originated with the former ministers. On the whole, though something must be subtracted from the merit of this volume, when we consider it as the materials of the future historian, we can, in general, praise its execution. The parliamentary transactions are faithfully reported; the collection of public papers and accounts appears to be complete; the selections from the publications of the year, judicious and well-arranged; the view of domestic literature, full, and, generally, impartial. We must, however, be more particular.

The editor, in the preface, claims the approbation of the public for the conduct of the *New Annual Register*, from the test of experience; and, if they be now the panegyrists of ministers, it is 'because government, in its measures, has come to *them* : ' they remain, therefore, it is remarked, consistent. We believe it would not be easy to prove this assertion in all its branches. With respect to the war, it is true; and no one can be more cordial supporters of the present peace than ourselves; for, in reality, the aggrandisement of France arose, and must be augmented, by the continuance of war. It requires little sagacity to perceive that that vast empire, as now united, is kept together by terror; that it is only compressed by opposition; and chiefly formidable in the tumultuous din of war. Should the peace continue, new objects will be the result; rivalry will succeed to alliances; and the poverty of France—for not even the good fortune of Bonaparte, the brightest jewel in his new imperial crown, can make that nation, for many years, a commercial one—will render her more dreaded as an ally than as an enemy.

The dissolution of the ministry leads the author, in the first chapter, to examine the administration of Mr. Pitt. He seems to allow that other causes of his resignation, besides the ostensible ones, existed; and it is probable that one of these was the continuance of the war. The political character of Mr. Pitt is not drawn, as may be supposed, in colours highly favorable: imputations of inconsistency, haste, and imperiousness, appear in almost every part; and we may allow, that, in the inexperience of his early career, much was done which was soon retracted; much attempted which could not be carried into exe-

cution. Yet, if the exertions of this country were warranted by the emergencies ; if, as is contended, religion, social order, and regular government, were at stake, Mr. Pitt's conduct was bold, energetic, able, and decisive. The moment for making peace was lost or overlooked.

‘ Yet the errors of Mr. Pitt were rather errors of judgment than of principle. The little and factious calumny which would ascribe to him a deliberate plan to overthrow the liberties of his country is to be despised. He disliked liberty only when it thwarted his views, and he sported occasionally with the constitution of his country, only to serve the little purposes of party, the exigencies of the moment. He is charged, with equal injustice perhaps, with having extended the system of parliamentary corruption. It does not appear that such a charge is well founded : on the contrary, the influence which he employed appears to have been of a more open and direct nature than that which was established either by Walpole or lord North. He lavished the honours of the peerage, it is true, with an unsparing hand, and some new offices were created. But the system of bribery, under the colour of participating in the loan, was laid aside ; nor does it appear, on the whole, that the pension list was immoderately enlarged.

‘ So inapplicable indeed is the charge of pursuing despotism on a system, that the great misfortune of this administration was, that they were totally without any plan or system whatever. It was a temporising *make-shift* administration, which pursued no measures whatever with consistency. Genius, like virtue, yields not to times or humours, or circumstances, but makes them all ultimately subservient to its own enlarged and liberal system of policy ; but Mr. Pitt's administration was best characterised by a favourite phrase of his own, *existing circumstances*. His first political project was a parliamentary reform, but he discovered that *existing circumstances* would not admit it. He undertook to extinguish the national debt ; he concluded by doubling it. He prided himself upon being the minister of peace ; he soon experienced an inordinate passion for war. Thus, one part of his administration was a contradiction of another ; one system served as a practical refutation of the preceding ; and it is a well-known fact, that a measure of the highest national importance, which had been ordered in the afternoon, has been revoked the succeeding morning.

‘ The same inconsistency is observable in the causes, or rather excuses, for the late war. At one time it was a war voluntarily undertaken in the true spirit of chivalry “ for religion, monarchy, and social order ;” at another, we were forced into it by the aggression of our adversaries. At one period it was carried on to procure “ indemnity for the past, and security for the future ;” at another, for the express purpose of restoring the house of Bourbon. In the negotiation at Paris, the *sine qua non* was the restoration of the Netherlands to the emperor of Germany ; in the answer to the overture of Bonaparte, it was the re-establishment of monarchy in France. Contrary to the policy of all wise statesmen, who embrace the moment of good

fortune to secure the most advantageous terms, our ministers were haughty and insolent in success, and abject in ill-fortune; they negotiated only when their allies were beaten off the field.' p. 5.

We know not whether it be fair to consider the language of parliament as real motives, or to torture what may be wrested in the warmth of a debate, or may be requisite to colour reasons that ought not to be explained, into real objects. The war, whether provoked or not, was begun hastily, and continued with obstinacy. In the midst of it, however, the plan for paying its expenses was steadily continued; and, at its expiration, a fund was accumulated, which, in a few years, would attain that end. It is alleged, that, of the three plans proposed by Dr. Price, Mr. Pitt chose the worst. It is true, as we formerly had occasion to show: but he chose the only practicable one; and, if the government, by the depression of the funds, paid a higher interest for money, it received some compensation by the more rapid accumulation of the consolidated fund. The taxes of Mr. Pitt were not, perhaps, in every instance well chosen; but to tax vanities and luxuries has been always recommended; and, where such vast sums are to be raised, it is not surprising that some of the imposts may have been found improper.

The parliamentary debates are, as we have said, faithfully detailed; but they want that luminous compression, that comprehensive energy, which gives the force of a long speech in a few lines. Sometimes, indeed, the language should be preserved; but, in a work of this kind, the greater number of speeches will bear considerable abridgement. The whole of the parliamentary transactions extends to nearly 250 pages.

The general view of 'Domestic Affairs' is short; and the frankness and moderation of ministers, the method and impartiality with which the public business is conducted, are the subjects of praise. The northern confederacy is the next object; and the expedition under sir Hyde Parker, to the Baltic, is coldly and imperfectly related. The design and the success are, in some degree, mis-represented. The passage of the Sound, indeed, *was* 'deemed impossible;' but it was passed with comparative safety, because there was no opposition on the side of Sweden. It is singular that no notice is taken of the gallantry of sir Thomas Graves, who brought the 'Defiance' forward in the line against the crown batteries; and that, among the causes of the ultimate termination, the conviction that Copenhagen was not defensible by any power the Danes could bring against a British fleet and British seamen, is not mentioned. The insinuation of lord Nelson 'spontaneously offering a cessation of arms, which, it is said, was not less necessary to his own than the

enemy's forces,' is not just. We know, from the best authority, that, after the crown batteries were silenced, and the last ship was in flames, lord Nelson said to his second in command—'We have done all that we were directed to do. Why should we destroy these poor creatures, no longer able to resist? Are we not justified in proposing a cessation of arms?' The termination of the contest, it is said, 'is not to be attributed to the victory of Copenhagen, or to the victorious progress of the British fleet,' but to the death of the *magnanimous* Paul. This is another insinuation that merits notice. The Danish fleet and the Danish seamen are not so insignificant in the northern alliance as to deserve no regard. To show the Danes that their arsenal might be destroyed, was to detach them from the confederacy; and would certainly have shaken the resolution of the Swedes, and even of Paul, had he survived. The historian, we think, ought not to have passed wholly over another subject, which has occasioned some animadversion; viz. why sir Hyde Parker, when one ship grounded, had not supplied its place; why he had not commanded the attack himself; and why he was so coldly received by the admiralty, and so slightly complimented by parliament. The editor ought also to have known that sir Hyde Parker's object was not limited to Copenhagen, but extended to Carlsrona and Revel. His further progress was, however, thus prevented. Why the subject of the contest was afterwards compromised, and, as *we* think, somewhat disgracefully limited, it is not our present business to inquire. Probably, in this enlightened age, these rigorous impositions are not practicable: perhaps not being able to gain the whole, it was better to secure a part. The editor's observations are judicious, and merit the notice of the candid examiner.

'Soon after, a cessation of arms, and the general outline of a pacific accommodation with Great-Britain, were agreed on between the Russian court and sir Hyde Parker; and lord St. Helen's was dispatched from our court with full powers to terminate the dispute. In the mean time, the embargo on the British ships detained in the ports of Russia was removed; and this honourable conduct was answered by a correspondent act of liberality on the part of Great-Britain. Under these favourable auspices the negotiation commenced, and from such appearances it was natural to conclude that each party would be disposed to concede a little; and such, in truth, was the result. It is rather an awkward circumstance in a treaty of peace to provide for the events of a future war; but the present treaty comes not precisely under that predicament: its object was, in case of the prevalence of hostilities among the other European powers, to prevent a rupture between the contracting parties. We are not so cynical as to cavil at the conditions: on the contrary, we think they are such as a liberal system of policy would have conceded on our part, had there not even been any power in the other parties to resist our demands.

One stipulation is particularly deserving of praise; and that is, confining the right of search to the ships which are employed entirely in the service of government. Such vessels are at least under a more rigid discipline, their commanders ought to be better informed, and a stronger responsibility attaches to them, than to that motley race of adventurers who are found in privateers and letters-of-marque. Indeed, every restriction that can be laid upon these legal pirates must be salutary to commerce, and conducive to the welfare of mankind.—The manner in which this right of search is to be exercised is also well calculated for the prevention of contest and dispute. Every merchant-ship of a neutral power, which sails under convoy, is to be furnished with a passport, or sea-letter, containing a true description of the cargo with which it is freighted; and this is to be subjected to the inspection of the officer who superintends the convoy. Under these circumstances the convoy is to pass unmolested by the ships of war of the other contracting party, that party being in a state of war with another nation. All that can be demanded is to inspect the papers, and to ascertain that the commander is properly authorised to convoy such vessels, laden with articles not contraband, to a certain port. It is only upon good ground of suspicion that the commander of any ship of war can detain any merchant-ship under these circumstances; and should he detain any without just and sufficient cause appearing, he must then make full compensation to the owners of such vessel for any loss, detriment, cost, or damages, which may be incurred by such detention. The number of articles which are to be in future considered as contraband is also reduced; and among the exemptions are iron, copper, timber, pitch, tar, hemp, and sailcloth, which were formerly regarded as prohibited articles.' p. 261.

In the details respecting the expedition to Egypt, the editor is, with many who opposed the infraction of the treaty of El-Arish, severe on the advisers of that measure. We will add, that we think it impolitic and unjust; but we ought also to add, that, on a moment's consideration, ministers thought the same. Yet the relative situation of the two nations should be considered; and the consequences of pouring 20,000 veteran troops, in the critical moment of the contending armies, on the plains of Italy, not be disregarded. The fate of Europe might have been decided by it, as it was afterwards decided at Marengo, by debilitating the centre of the Austrian army, in a weak moment of general Melas. In the whole narrative of the Egyptian expedition, there is a considerable defect of original information. At this period it requires somewhat more than confidence to say, that the French garrison at Cairo did not exceed four or five thousand men.

The action of sir J. Saumarez with the French and Spanish fleets in the Straits is equally mis-represented. It was no 'battle'; it was a flight and pursuit; and, independently of the accident, it was glorious to British spirit and enterprise. It represents,

too, the Hannibal as carried off, when it is well known that she returned useless and unserviceable to Algesiras.

When, however, we arrive at the 'Foreign History,' we have no reason to complain of cold caution and faint praise. The French achievements are blazoned with the warmest colouring. What relates to the negotiation respecting the proposed naval armistice is very imperfectly narrated, and seems to demand a more ample discussion.

The same spirit pervades the minor transactions, and the narrative of the affairs of France. Even the unprovoked aggression of Paul passes for a common transaction, which provokes neither praise, censure, nor animadversion. It does not excite the author's irascibility, though attended with circumstances of cruelty and oppression without example in the history of nations.

Of the other parts of the volume, which consist chiefly of extracts, we have already spoken with commendation. A very interesting *original* account of the late laborious and attentive Duke Gordon, librarian of the University of Edinburgh, is inserted, from the communication of professor Dalziel. The poetry also is elegant, and merits a more ample circulation. In the '*Domestic Literature*' we perceive an apparent error of consequence, where Dr. Shaw's Zoölogy is said to be continued with '*impaired elegance and accuracy**.' If correct, the reviewer is either misled or mistaken. On the whole, however, this volume is a respectable one. We have engaged in the different details at greater length than usual; a practice we occasionally adopt to prevent carelessness and indolence. We trust that in a future volume we shall have less to reprehend.

ART. V. — *Poems on various Subjects, by Thomas Dermody.*
8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1802.

THESE Poems are evidently the productions of a man of genius; but they seem to be desultory effusions, neither premeditated nor corrected. Mr. Dermody has read our older and better poets with feeling and attention: he has imitated their manner and their spelling, and the inartificial structure of their stories. But this is blind admiration. However sweet in its sounds and beautiful in its separate lines, poetry will fail to please, if it be not connected with some interest of narrative, some manliness of thought, some delineation of human character or human action.

* We have made some inquiries respecting this part of the subject, and are informed, on good authority, that it is an error of the press. The word in the manuscript is *unimpaired*. EDITOR.

The 'Extravaganza,' says this author, is perhaps the most original and fanciful poem I ever had sufficient powers to compose. Some extracts from this piece will justify our praise and our censure: it opens thus:

' Oh ! for a journey to th'Antipodes,
Or some lone region of remotest Ind !
Where, sagely sad, in solitary ease
My weary sprite a safe retreat might find,
Where nothing might perturb my pensive mind,
But such delicious phantasies, as please
The forming eye, when fiery flakes at eve,
With wayward shapes the listless sense deceive.
Then wingy-heel'd Imagination's flight
Would bear me, devious, thro' the lamping sky ;
Then, haply, should I feel no low delight
From earthly bonnibel's bewitching eye ;
Voluptuous, in her dainty arms to lie,
Ne stoop, inglorious, from so proud a height ;
While my fond heart pour'd forth it's vain distress,
Snar'd in the fetters of a golden tress !"
' Such was my wish, romantic wish, I ween,
When that soft nigromansir, baulmy sleep,
Laid me, entraunced, amid a pleasant scene,
Where many a welling spring did murmurous creep,
To lull me with its liquid lapses deep ;
And, shaking their broad locks of glorious green,
Tall trees their thick, lascivious leaves entwined,
To wooe with dalliaunce blithe the Western wind.' p. 29.

Here a female form descends to him in a veil of roses.

' Her sunny ringlets, wove in cunning braid,
Form'd for her lily front a coronet ;
Her persant eyes two precious gems betraid,
In living alabaster featly set,
Arch'd with their graceful brows of shiny jet ;
Her swelling bosom thro' its slender shade
Leap'd to be seen ; her round and dimply chin
Would tempt a frozen eremite to sin.
A silken samile slightly did enfold
Her luscious limbs, girt with a starry zone,
It's colour heavn'ly blue, bedropt with gold,
And crimson, gorgeous as the proud pavone ;
A lambent glory on her temples shone :
In sooth, she look'd not one of Nature's mold,
But some gay creature whom the Minstrel sees,
Aërial floating on the evening-breeze.' p. 33.

The sylph then describes to him the various occupations of her kindred spirits. Much fancy is displayed in this part, and,

as most of the images may be found in those vigorous but unequal writers from whom Mr. Dermody has formed his poetical style, we are pleased to see them here brought together in such sweet lines.

‘ ——— Some, the dol’rous servants of Despair,
With headless steeds the car of Death prepare.

‘ Four skeletons the coal-black coursers stride ;
With flamy fingers four direct the way ;
A winding-sheet so white, distended wide,
Dabbled in blood, the coffin doth array :
Four hideous urchins at each corner play,
And, in quaint gambol, shift from side to side ;
Meanwhile, the thrice-repeated groan severe
Smites the expiring Sinner’s closing ear.

Less fearful pranks besit the merry fays :
By the trim margent of some huddling stream,
To revel in the pale moon’s tremulous rays ;
To prompt the dotting nurse’s idle dream ;
Or lure the mutt’ring carl with wanton gleam ;
Yet oft some ouphe malign, in cradle slays
The slumb’ring babe, then sucks his flowing gore,
And, grinning, leaves him strangled on the floor.’ p. 39.

She goes on to inform him that her own employ is—

‘ To point the transport of the thrilling kiss,
Ne’er known the maiden’s throbbing heart to miss ;
T’ anneal the drop that falls on Feeling’s shrine ;
To soothe the Lover’s soul when frenzy-fraught ;
Or lift sublime the Poet’s towering thought ;

‘ Arise ! arise ! do not thy pulses beat
More lively marches to forego thy lot ?
Feels not thy breast a more exalted heat,
Loos’d from mortality, and yon dim spot ?
Surpassing joys, beyond conception wrought,
In my embrace thy purer sense await !
Embay’d in ecstasies, my humil head
I rear’d ; and lo ! the fair phantasma fled.’ p. 43.

All this is beautiful: but to what does the poem tend? We hope better things from the author, since we find him at last

‘ Musing on descant high, whose future birth
Haply may not my humble name abase.’

Something of the same anticipation we discover in the conclusion of the next poem. We hope it is prophetic.

‘ Then wail not, Genius ! thy unworthy lot,
Where’er thou sadly shrink’st from sight profane ;

Thy patient labours shall not be forgot,
 Nor lost the influence of thy lofty strain;
 From glory's nodding crest, of crimson stain,
 The laurel shall forsake its seat sublime;
 The prostrate column load the groaning plain;
 While rising o'er the wreck, thy sacred rhyme
 Shall fire to noble feats the sons of future time.

' Vagrant, and scoff'd, and houseless, as thou art,
 The powerful spell of thy exalted theme,
 Shall wake to bolder deed the warrior's heart,
 Shall breathe o'er sleeping Love a brighter dream;
 From every line shall fresh Instruction stream;
 The cottage-hearth thy pensive plaint shall hear;
 In regal hall thy glittering harp shall gleam;
 The dark, cold breast of lonely Sorrow chear;
 And start from Phrenzy's lid Conviction's frozen tear.

' Heav'n's! can I stoop to aught of mortal mold,
 Whom shapes fantastic beck to bliss unknown?
 Say, can I glote on rayless heaps of gold,
 When yon ethereal landscape is my own?
 Where it's pure Sov'reign plants his fiery throne;
 Are not his aureate shafts elanced around,
 'Till, by her twinkling train distinctly known,
 His Sister meek, with paler glories crown'd,
 Uprears her maiden front, with argent fillet bound?

' Hence! the deep gloom, that wraps in central shade,
 The struggling splendors of th' immortal Mind!
 Hence! ev'ry black surmise, that would invade
 The breast by charming sympathies refin'd!
 Ye felon doubts! I give you to the wind:
 Fortune benign, now, blows her gentlest airs,
 To aid my vent'rous flight, too long confin'd;
 And Fancy her undaunted plume prepares,
 To sail the highest heav'n;—Avaunt ye scowling Cares!' r. 53.

The shorter pieces are mere trifles. The author evidently writes with facility; and we suspect he publishes all he writes. Many complimentary lines to living authors are inserted, and these are always more creditable to his good-nature than his judgement. The ludicrous poems are miserably bad. A farmer mistakes a German corn-cutter for a dealer in corn, and invites him to dinner.

' Well; dinner's done; the cloth remov'd;
 Each drank the toast to what he lov'd;
 When thus the quack accosts him gaily,
 "Pray, Sare, where mostly do your ail lye?"
 "Sir," quoth the clown, in manner ample,
 "To satisfy, I'll fetch a sample.
 O'last year's crop—" "Py Got, I'll crop 'em"

Exclaims the quack, alert to stop him,
 " I'll take 'em root and pranch, mynheer!"
 " Sir you know corn is very dear,
 But if you please to take the whole,
 You'll have a bargain, 'pon my soul."
 " De whole, aye, aye, de whole, by Got,
 I'll whip de whole out in a shot!"
 So saying, while 'he drew his knife out,
 (Enough to fright a poor man's life out,)
 Right soon he rais'd him on his rump,
 And seis'd the wond'ring farmer's stump,
 Then, without farther disquisition,
 On his big toe began incision,
 And would have driven the weapon further,
 Had not his patient roar'd out, murder!
 " My Got, vat morther, pye ant pye,
 Your toe pe vite as your von eye,
 I put just touche upon the pone,—
 Dare now—you see, de job is done!" P. 144.

We discover the country of the author in the phrase *big toe*.
 His 'own Character' he has given us.

' ——— I confess, least you kindly mistake,
 I'm a compound extreme of the sage and the rake;
 Abstracted, licentious, affected, heroic,
 A poet, a soldier, a coxcomb, a stoic;
 This moment, abstemious as faquir or bramin;
 The next, Aristippus-like, swinishly cramming;
 Now, full of devotion, and loyal dispute;
 A democrat, now, and a deist to boot;
 Now, a frown on my front, and a leer in my eye;
 Now, heaving unfeign'd sensibility's sigh;
 Now, weighing with care each elaborate word;
 Now, the jest of a tavern, as drunk as a lord;
 By imminent woes, now, unmov'd as a stone;
 And, now, tenderly thrill'd by a grief not my own.' P. 146.

' On looking over,' says the author, ' a variety of miscellaneous papers, which, through a particular casualty, have been for some years entirely lost to me, I find a few of them not quite devoid of that spirit and fancy which mark the earlier effusions of an enthusiast. To give an idea of their date, and perhaps to awaken curiosity, I must observe that two collections of my poems were published in the metropolis of the sister-kingdom; the first written between the 12th and 13th, the second between the 14th and 16th years of my age. Nearly eight years had elapsed before I again resumed the pen. Should this volume experience any tolerable degree of encouragement, I shall select some of those trifles which may appear the most pardonable, and introduce them in the course of a work I have long fondly meditated, which will be no other than a "Memoir of the first twenty-six years of my Own Life," a life which has not been, as

I too sensibly feel, barren of extraordinary incident, or unattended with various observation.' P. x.

The poems, which Mr. Dermody thus mentions, we well remember. We read them with surprise and delight; and have often regretted that so fair a blossom had produced no fruit. Ten years have not ripened his talents as we should have expected. If there are fewer blemishes in his present productions, there are fewer beauties. A fairer harvest might have been produced had he but attended to the advice of his own sylphid.

" Full ill, (she cries) my pupil, has thine ear
Receiv'd the moral lore, I, whilom, taught;
Tho' prodigal of fancy, who will hear
Thy numbers vague, with no instruction fraught,
And destitute of heav'n-descended thought?
Tho' slighting the severer rules of art,
With choicest cunning is thy descendant wrought,
If thou to lull the sense, neglect the heart,

Trust me, advent'rous youth! we suddenly must part." P. 66.

While finishing this notice of his poems, we have just heard of Mr. Dermody's death.

ART. VI.—*The Letters of a Solitary Wanderer: containing Narratives of various Description. By Charlotte Smith. Vols. IV. and V. 12mo. 10s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.*

WE are sorry to have incurred Mrs. Smith's displeasure, and beg leave to observe, in our own defence, that the remarks were not, *designedly*, invidious. Certain it is, that we have drawn on ourselves her direst vengeance. We are ladies (not *old* women)—attorneys or bum-bailiffs—the retainers of party—our 'malignity' (for we are many) 'supplies the want, of learning and integrity;' and 'we are inadequate to the task of correcting the advertisements in a country newspaper.'—'Can a woman rail thus?'—*tantane animis muliebribus ire?*

We trust that 'after speaking her mind' in common language, or what may be styled a little scolding, she is more comfortable, and in as good humour as ourselves. If so, we will offer a few calm observations on the subject.

If it be contended, that, when an author has once written well, he must ever continue to do so, experience will be decisively in opposition to the opinion. Whatever merit may be in the criticisms on the earlier works of Mrs. Smith, those on the later cannot be debased by a greater proportion of ignorance, since it is not easy to *unlearn*; and, we trust, not of malignity, since it has not appeared in any other form. In fact, they are written

by the same person, to whichever of the honourable critics may belong. Returning, after some interval, to Smith's last volumes, he was led to compare them with the former; and stated the balance, in his opinion, with impartiality. He premised, as he had done before, that if novels were examples of life and manners, the examples, in many of Mrs. Smith's works, were faulty or dangerous; and noticed, as a singular circumstance, the constant introduction of a prudent old lady—'the world's brightest ornament.' We are surprised that the real faults, reprehended with some severity, should not be noticed; but that the old lady should have given the deepest wound. Boys may make the most unequal and imprudent connexions; young women may pursue, with indiscretion, the victim of his country's laws; nocturnal meetings of the most improper kind may take place; and these be blamed without inflicting a pang; but a casual observation of little moment is the spark which occasions the explosion. Let us then seriously ask, if Mrs. Stafford, the victim of a husband's imprudence; if other ladies, of a certain age, oppressed in their circumstances, and despoiled by what are called harpies of the law, may not be supposed copies of herself, without any injurious imputation? Was it a crime that Smollett's Roderic Random was copied from himself; that Fielding, in Tom Jones, related his own imprudencies; or that Dr. Hill in many of his novels was himself the hero? To come nearer home, is there a trait in either character pointed out, which Mrs. Smith would disclaim? Whence then this resentment? It can only be resolved into one circumstance; that the gross errors in the examples held up were too obvious to admit of an apology; and the whole weight of resentment on this account is transferred to an innocent remark of not the slightest importance; but which would admit of animadversion. We have, however, said, that we feel no displeasure at these little ebullitions of resentment, as we are conscious that, in Mrs. Smith's extensive literary warfare, the milk of human kindness has always, in our journal, softened the severity of criticism; that we have cheerfully praised, and condemned with gentleness. We only lament her error.

In the review of the former volumes of this work, we mentioned, with some slight censure, the very abrupt inartificial mode of connecting this string of narratives. The 'Wanderer's' own story was to have been the last, and the links would then, we find, have been more conspicuous. We wish this had been explained sooner. Other circumstances have, however, given additional awkwardness to the appearance of these volumes. On the death of her former publisher, who possessed the manuscript of the fourth and fifth volumes, the two parts of the work were sold to different persons; and the little novels, now before us, conclude even more abruptly than the former. The mind is

left in uneasy suspense, from which we have little prospect of relief, as the Wanderer's adventures are, we find, to be rendered distinct and unconnected; at least so far as the circumstances will admit. The adventures of the Hungarian are well introduced; and we feel considerable interest in the events of the life of one who, though, in fact, a robber, and bent on deliberate revenge, perhaps in the event on fratricide, yet seems to command our respect, when we reflect on the magnitude of the provocations—the cruelty of his former treatment. We may ask, however, should such pictures be represented? Should it be for a moment admitted that, in any situation, such crimes can lose the slightest portion of their enormity? These are questions we need not answer; but may add, that the darkest shades are softened as much as possible. The Hungarian professes not to join his companions on their bloody expeditions, and his object is only to obtain *satisfaction* from his brother. But, linked with such companions, where is the power that can stop short? This is the principle that we would oppose. We must not employ agents that we cannot control; and, with such agents, the innocence of our prior intentions will not avail in excusing the event.

The story of Leonora arises in part from that of Gertrude Leycester. It is pleasing and interesting. We dare not hint at a supposed copy; but we greatly wish that we had left all the parties in repose. From this part we shall select a specimen; not because equally interesting ones do not occur in the first story, but that the relative situation of the parties are not so easily explained. In this case, the Wanderer had met and protected a little boy, who was seeking his mother in Ireland, left by an *imprudent* father.

‘In a neighbouring county there is a family-house, at which an old friend of mine sometimes resides for a few weeks in the year. I heard, before I left Dublin, that this was the period of his occasional sojourn; and, on inquiry, I found it was about fifty-five miles from Killeashaugh. As I could find in this latter town no traces of the persons I sought, I determined to leave it for Kallanross. Edward resigned, with deep yet silent regret, the hope he had entertained of finding his mother. His gratitude to me increased; yet I saw him drooping under the conviction that he was indeed a friendless orphan, dependent on the bounty of a stranger.

‘Our way lay along the wild coast, indented here with deep bays, and there shooting out into vast promontories, ending in high headlands, that, towering, appeared to command the hemisphere. Some part of the road was over these, or on the sands at their base; and the ascents or descents among them were so broken by torrents, or impeded by masses of stone, that we performed much more of our journey on foot than on our horses. Yet, notwithstanding all our diligence, and though Edward is an excellent traveler, the evening was closing upon us while we were yet distant some miles from the small hamlet, where we were told we might remain for the night.

The night approached sullenly, and the wind high and keen, only admitted the rising moon to appear as the dark clouds were sometimes divided. I found that the guide we had hired (for here it is impossible to travel without one,) was an ignorant and a timorous fellow, and, probably pressed by want, had, for the sake of earning a few shillings, undertaken a task to which he was incompetent; nor was that suspicion, after a time, the worst I entertained of him. I thought he had purposely misled us, and that we should meet with some of those disagreeable adventures that had been predicted at Dublin. I therefore insisted on his conducting us immediately, by the safest way, to the valley which we saw before us, and where I had distinguished what I took to be a church, or chapel, near some other large and apparently ruinous buildings, with some huts of the peasants scattered around near them. The man promised to obey, but failed not to remonstrate on the badness of the road, and his ignorance of any path but that along which he was before directing us. I persisted, however, and leading our horses, we began to descend as well as we could.

‘The attention of every individual was, in some degree, necessary to his own safety, save that both Arnold and I were, from time to time, as occasion required, solicitous for our younger companion, who, however, scrambled better than any of us. Our progress was slow, and we had not yet descended above half way, when loud shrieks, or rather yells, were heard in the vale beneath us, and we saw fire, in many places, blazing from the buildings which at night-fall we had descried. I inquired of the guide what all this meant? He answered, in apparent confusion, that he supposed it was an attack of one party against another, and that the aggressors had set fire to the village. “Such things,” said the man, “happen very often; and we shall be wise if we will not get among them.”—The shrieks now increased, and the report of fire-arms was heard. The cries of women and children, and the execrations of men, loaded the wind. I could not remain unconcerned while a scene of this sort was transacting. I bade Arnold give me the pistols he carried, and take care of the boy while I hastened on. Arnold refused to leave me; and the spirited boy, grasping my hand, asked me if I thought him so childish, or so cowardly, as to fly from danger which I found it necessary to face. While I answered, we were on the plain, and, mounting our horses, the increasing light of the fires, and the cries and shouts, guided us to the spot.

‘Heavens! what a scene was presented to us. The catholics had attacked a village where a few protestant families lived, in consequence of an old quarrel which had been lately renewed with increased acrimony. I had, however, no time to inquire into the merits of the cause. I saw that one party were superior to the other in numbers, and that about thirty men had formed themselves into a little phalanx round the ancient manorial house, or castle, (for such it appeared to me to be,) and towards them I endeavoured, with my two auxiliaries, Edward and honest Arnold, to make my way. The assailants seemed to give more importance than it deserved to this small reinforcement. I joined the men who guarded the gate, where the others appeared somewhat less determined to enter; and with my

hanger I made them recede still farther, while this hasty account was given me by one of the men whose language convinced me he was an Englishman. "Sir," said he, "this house is inhabited by an English lady—a woman in distress, with her children. She has been the idol of the country ever since she has been here, and done more good in one week to the poor wretches round the place, than all the priests together will do in an hundred years. One of them, because she took into her service and converted a girl that the priest had a mind to, has set these fanatic fellows against her and the people of the village, who are all church people. There was a wake last night at a cluster of cottages just by, and the people being half mad and quite drunk with whiskey, they were spirited up to do all this mischief, if they get into the house."

"They shall not," said I, "at least I will not see it." It would be an awkward narrative to say thus, and thus, did I, or rather we, for neither Arnold nor my brave little companion were idle. Let it suffice then to tell you, that the savages were repulsed, and I began to believe they were so far intimidated, that I might advance among them and prevent their committing farther cruelties on the defenceless women and children, whose habitations they were destroying. But before I had time to take the precautions necessary to the safe execution of such a plan, a dreadful shriek was heard within the house, the outer door of which we had defended, it suddenly opened, and a woman holding a child in her arms, while other children and some female servants followed, rushed out and sprang towards me, imploring help and protection. Gracious heaven! if the most painful anxiety would have been excited by seeing any woman in such a situation, what were my sensations when Edward called out on his mother, and clasping him wildly in her arms, that mother fell apparently dead at my feet.' Vol. v. p. 67.

In such detached scenes of pathos and interest, Mrs. Smith is unrivaled; nor, in the general conduct of her stories, does she deserve censure, except in those parts which we have formerly pointed out, and which she has not defended. Another little story arises out of the adventures of Leonora, of which we arrive at the conclusion.

We must not omit noticing one or two errors. They are not connected with the narrative; but if Mrs. Smith is not better acquainted with ancient or modern history, it would have been wiser to have avoided the allusions, as they now mislead those who may chance to recollect the passages of a work which they took up for amusement only. We allude to the Druids sacrificing human victims 'in honour of *their God Thor*,' vol. v. p. 37; and attributing the reformation in the thirty-ninth page of the same volume to the *reflexions* of Luther and Calvin.

ART. VII.—*The miscellaneous Works of Oliver Goldsmith, M. B. A new Edition, in Four Volumes. To which is prefixed, some Account of his Life and Writings. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 16s. Boards. Johnson.*

THE man to whom we have owed so much entertainment, whose singularities and oddities have amused us equally with his talents and knowledge, will always recur to our recollection with interest and regret. It is perhaps surprising, that, with such varied acquaintance in the world of letters, he has met with no very well informed biographer till this period; and that the complete collection of his miscellaneous works, and the account of his life, should have been delayed nearly thirty years. The editor recommends them to the notice of the public by Dr. Johnson's brief but comprehensive eulogy.

‘ He was a man of such variety of powers, and such felicity of performance, that he always seemed to do best that which he was doing; a man who had the art of being minute without tediousness, and general without confusion; whose language was copious without exuberance, exact without constraint, and easy without weakness.

‘ The account of his life is composed from the information of persons, who were intimate with the poet at an early period, and who were honoured with a continuance of his friendship till the time, when the world was deprived of this fascinating writer. Their names, were the editor at liberty to mention them, would immediately dispel all doubts as to the authenticity of the memoirs, and reflect distinguished credit on the publication.

‘ In addition to the acknowledged performances of our author, the editor has introduced into these volumes several essays, which appeared in the periodical works of the day, and which he has ascertained to have proceeded from the pen of Dr. Goldsmith.’ Vol. i. p. iii.

Those who knew Dr. Goldsmith in his advanced life will be led to expect a series of oddities and blunders; but they will perhaps find the list more extensive than they supposed; and those who did not know him will be highly entertained with the life of a man so truly singular and eccentric. The account of the poet's early years is given by his eldest sister, and consequently may be supposed authentic.

‘ Oliver, however, was from his earliest infancy very different from other children, subject to particular humours, for the most part uncommonly serious and reserved, but when in gay spirits none ever so agreeable as he; and he began at so early a period to show signs of genius that he quickly engaged the notice of all the friends of the family, many of whom were in the church. At the age of seven or eight he discovered a natural turn for rhyming, and often amused his father and his friends with early poetical attempts.

When he could scarcely write legibly, he was always scribbling verses, which he burnt as he wrote them.

‘ Observing his fondness for books and learning, his mother, with whom he was always a favourite, pleaded with his father to give him a liberal education : but his own narrow income, the expense attending the educating of his eldest son, and his numerous family, were strong objections. Oliver, in the mean time, was placed under the Rev. Mr. Griffin, then schoolmaster of Elphin, and was received into the house of his father’s brother, John Goldsmith, esq. of Ballyoughter, near that town, who with his family considered him as a prodigy for his age, and have handed down the following instance of his early wit.

‘ A large company of young people of both sexes were assembled one evening at his uncle’s, and Oliver, then but nine years old, was required to dance a hornpipe, a youth playing to him at the same time on a fiddle. Being but newly recovered from the small-pox, by which he was much disfigured, and his figure being short and thick, the musician, very archly as he supposed, compared him to *Æsop* dancing ; and still harping on this idea, which he conceived to be very bright, our conceited gentleman had suddenly the laugh turned against him, by Oliver’s stopping short in the dance with this retort :—

Our herald hath proclaim’d this saying,
See *Æsop* dancing, and his monkey playing.

‘ This smart reply decided his fortune, for from that time it was determined to send him to the university, and some of the relations, who were respectable clergymen, kindly offered to contribute towards the expense, particularly the rev. Thomas Contarine, who had married Oliver’s aunt, a gentleman of distinguished learning and good preferment.’ Vol. i. p. 4.

In one of Goldsmith’s little journeys to school, he made the mistake which is the foundation of one of his comedies, by ‘ inquiring for the best *house* in the place,’ meaning an inn, but which the person of whom he inquired interpreted too literally. A little indiscretion at college, which his tutor resented with a very reprehensible intemperance, induced him to leave it, and he was for a time a vagabond. But at last his brother assisted him, and effected a reconciliation with the tutor ; but his residence at college was short, as his father’s death, and perhaps the refusal of the bishop to ordain him, from the report of his former irregularities, induced him to accept the office of a private tutor. In this capacity he continued about a year, and then left the house, with about thirty pounds in his pocket, and a good horse.

‘ His friends, after an absence of six weeks, without having heard what had become of him, concluded he had quitted the kingdom ; when he suddenly returned to his mother’s house without a penny, upon a poor little horse not worth twenty shillings, which he called

Fiddle-Back. His mother, as might be expected, was highly offended, but his brothers and sisters had contrived to meet him there, and at length effected a reconciliation.

Being required to account for the loss of his money and linen, and the horse on which he had departed, he told them that he had been at Cork, where he had sold his horse, and paid for his passage for America, to a captain of a ship. But the winds proving contrary for three weeks, he had amused himself by seeing every thing curious in and about that city, and on the day the wind proved fair, being engaged with a party in an excursion into the country, his friend the captain had set sail without him. He continued in Cork till he had only two guineas left, out of which he paid forty shillings for Fiddle-Back, and when he wished to return home he had only the remaining crown in his pocket. Although this was rather too little for a journey of a hundred and twenty miles, he had intended to visit on the road not far from Cork a dear friend he had known in college, who had often pressed him to spend a summer at his house, and on whose assistance he depended for supplies. In this expectation he had given half his little stock to a poor woman in his way, who had solicited relief for herself and eight children, their father having been seized for rent, and thrown into jail.

He found his friend just recovering from a severe illness; who received him in his cap and slippers, but expressed the greatest joy to see him, and eagerly inquired what agreeable occasion had so happily brought him into that country. Oliver, delighted to think his distresses were now at an end, concealed no part of them from his host; to gratify his fine feelings, and to excite his sympathy, he represented in the strongest terms not only his present destitute condition, but the little prospect he had of returning home, on account of having so highly disobliged his family, and observed, that it must be a work of time, and of long intercession, before he could again expect to be received into favour. The melancholy silence with which his affecting tale was heard he attributed to the tenderest compassion; and the frequent sighs of his friend, as he walked about rubbing his hands, and deeply lost in thought, consoled him under the dismal recital. The uncommon length of his friend's silence enabled him to renew the subject, and to expatiate on his hopeless situation, till it was at length terminated by his host's observing very drily, how inconvenient it was for him to receive company in his present state of weakness; that he had no provision in the house for a healthy person; he had nothing but slops and milk diet for himself; of which, if he pleased, Mr. Goldsmith might partake, but he feared it would not soon be got ready. This was dismal news to our hungry traveller, who, alas! had fasted the whole day, and it was not till six o'clock, when an old woman appeared and spread the table, on which she laid a small bowl of sagoe for her master, and a porringer of sour milk, with a piece of brown bread, for his guest. This being soon dispatched, the invalid pleaded the necessity of going early to bed, and left poor Oliver to his own meditations.

In the morning, consulting with his friend on his unfortunate

situation, he advised him to hasten home without loss of time, as his family must be highly offended at his absence. On this Oliver ventured to solicit the loan of a guinea for the support of himself and his horse on the road. Here again his host gravely advised him against running in debt, and urged that his own illness had deprived him of all his cash. But, my dear friend, said he, you may sell your horse for money sufficient to bear your charges, and I will furnish you with another for the journey. When Oliver desired him to produce this steed, he drew from under a bed an oaken staff. At which the poor youth was so provoked that he was going to apply it to his pate, when a loud knocking at the gate gave notice of the approach of a visitant. This was a neighbouring gentleman of a very engaging aspect; to whom, as if nothing had happened, our traveller was presented as the very ingenious young friend who had been mentioned to him with such high encomiums while they were at college.' Vol. i. p. 9.

The biographer indeed admits, that Goldsmith's proficiency at college was not considerable, chiefly in consequence of his tutor's ill usage; and he adds, in a note, a very singular and interesting anecdote of the family of his uncle, Mr. Thomas Contarine. It is however too long for our present purpose.

In 1752 Dr. Goldsmith repaired to Edinburgh for the purpose of studying medicine; and was, as usual, inconsiderate, eccentric, and convivial, not without a mixture of grimace and buffoonery, which he never wholly left off. Goldsmith's account of Scotland is a little unfavourable, but, at the period when he wrote, not a very strong caricature. His account of the Dutch is equally humorous and singular. These descriptions bear the genuine stamp of Goldsmith's genius, and may be read by his admirers with peculiar pleasure. Gaming again produced similar effects with his former eccentricities, and emptied his purse, leaving him to perform the tour of Europe on foot, without money. His adventures in this journey have been long before the public, as related by the Vicar of Wakefield's son.

We shall pass over the scenes of his distresses, till he assumed the medical character in London; but concluded, like some other eccentric physicians, by becoming an author.

'You may easily imagine,' he remarks in a letter to his brother-in-law, 'what difficulties I had to encounter, left as I was without friends, recommendations, money, or impudence; and that in a country where being born an Irishman was sufficient to keep me unemployed. Many in such circumstances would have had recourse to the friar's cord or the suicide's halter. But with all my follies I had principle to resist the one, and resolution to combat the other.

'I suppose you desire to know my present situation. As there is nothing in it at which I should blush, or which mankind could censure, I see no reason for making it a secret; in short, by a very little practice as a physician, and a very little reputation as a poet, I make a shift to live. Nothing is more apt to introduce us to the

gates of the Muses than poverty; but it were well if they only left us at the door; the mischief is, they sometimes choose to give us their company at the entertainment, and want, instead of being gentleman-usher, often turns master of the ceremonies. Thus, upon hearing I write, no doubt you imagine I starve; and the name of an author naturally reminds you of a garret. In this particular I do not think proper to undeceive my friends. But whether I eat or starve; live in a first floor or four pair of stairs high; I still remember them with ardour, nay my very country comes in for a share of my affection. Unaccountable fondness for country, this *Maladie du Pais*, as the French call it! Unaccountable that he should still have an affection for a place, who never received when in it above common civility; who never brought any thing out of it except his brogue and his blunders. Surely my affection is equally ridiculous with the Scotchman's, who refused to be cured of the itch, because it made him unco'thoughtful of his wife and bonny Inverary.' Vol. i. p. 41.

At this time, and in circumstances not very promising, Dr. Goldsmith had an offer of going to India; and to equip him for the voyage, he seems to have entertained the design of publishing the "State of polite Literature." The letters on this subject do not appear to us in the advantageous light in which they are considered by the biographer. They have too much the air of a modern book-maker soliciting subscriptions by the art of puffing. His picture of himself is an unfavourable one; yet it is a likeness, though an unpleasing resemblance. It is taken from a letter to his brother.

' Though I never had a day's sickness since I saw you, yet I am not that strong active man you once knew me. You scarcely can conceive how much eight years of disappointment, anguish, and study, have worn me down. If I remember right, you are seven or eight years older than me, yet I dare venture to say, that if a stranger saw us both, he would pay me the honours of seniority. Imagine to yourself a pale melancholy visage, with two great wrinkles between the eye-brows, with an eye disgustingly severe, and a big wig; and you may have a perfect picture of my present appearance. On the other hand, I conceive you are as perfectly sleek and healthy, passing many a happy day among your own children, or those who knew you a child. Since I knew what it was to be a man, this is a pleasure I have not known. I have passed my days among a parcel of cool designing beings, and have contracted all their suspicious manner in my own behaviour. I should actually be as unfit for the society of my friends at home, as I detest that which I am obliged to partake of here. I can now neither partake of the pleasure of a revel, nor contribute to raise its jollity. I can neither laugh nor drink, have contracted an hesitating disagreeable manner of speaking, and a visage that looks ill-nature itself; in short, I have thought myself into a settled melancholy, and an utter disgust of all that life brings with it.—Whence this romantic turn, that all our family are possessed with? Whence this love for every place and every country but that in which we reside?

for every occupation but our own? this desire of fortune, and yet this eagerness to dissipate? I perceive, my dear sir, that I am at intervals for indulging this splenetic manner, and following my own taste, regardless of yours.' Vol. i. p. 54.

'Teach then, my dear sir, to your son thrift and oeconomy. Let his poor wandering uncle's example be placed before his eyes. I had learned from books to be disinterested and generous, before I was taught from experience the necessity of being prudent. I had contracted the habits and notions of a philosopher; while I was exposing myself to the insidious approaches of cunning; and often by being, even with my narrow finances, charitable to excess, I forgot the rules of justice, and placed myself in the very situation of the wretch who thanked me for my bounty. When I am in the remotest part of the world, tell him this, and perhaps he may improve from my example. But I find myself again falling into my gloomy habits of thinking.' Vol. i. p. 56.

In this letter he confesses himself *guilty* of writing the life of Voltaire. Yet he owns it a catchpenny, and the editor takes advantage of the confession. It is consequently omitted. He ought to have remembered Johnson's epitaph, '*nullum, quod tetigerit, non ornavit.*' We should have been much gratified at seeing this very hackneyed subject hackneyed *ad fastidium usque*, in his hands.

About this period he is said to have been a writer in the Monthly Review; but the connexion was slight and transitory. If we recollect rightly, the veteran editor of the Review has denied this circumstance, alleging that this office required at least *some* share of discretion. The question however is of little importance: Reviewers are '*magni nominis umbra*' without 'a local habitation and a name.'

At this period he sold his Vicar of Wakefield, which was not published till two years afterwards, and corrected several works for Mr. Newberry. He about this time also wrote his Letters on English History, under the disguise of a nobleman to his son. His fugitive pieces were of this era, and were the daily labours for his daily bread.

About this period also the Traveller appeared; and some time afterwards the Deserted Village; which contributed to establish his reputation: but before and after their publication his desire of wandering was ardent. The object was to visit the written mountains, without the slightest knowledge of the Runic or Arabic; to import the arts of Asia into Europe, without the smallest knowledge of what they possessed or we wanted. In short, it was a wandering inclination, and the motives, sufficiently important in appearance, were strong enough to satisfy his mind.

We are now arrived at the period when Dr. Goldsmith emerged from obscurity; and his plays, with the concomitant

circumstances, the History of the Literary Club, &c. are sufficiently known. We think it highly to his credit, that, when the duke of Northumberland was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and asked Goldsmith if he could serve him, our author asked nothing for himself, but recommended his *brother* to his grace's attention.

His Roman History, compiled from Livy, and his History of England, are well known, but not highly esteemed. The abridgement of the Grecian History, under his name, is not supposed to be his work.

' Besides his regular histories, of which Dr. Johnson thought very favourably, Goldsmith had all the other business of an author by profession: he wrote introductions and prefaces to the books and compilations of other writers; many of which have never come to our notice, but such as have occurred will be inserted in this collection. They all exhibit ingenious proofs of his talents as a composer, and generally give a better display of the subjects than could have been done by their own authors. But herein he is rather to be considered as an advocate pleading the cause of another, than delivering his own sentiments, for he often recommends the peculiarities, if not the defects of a work; which, if his pen were engaged on the other side, he would with equal ability and eloquence detect. The reader will find something like this in an address to the public, which was to usher in proposals (dated March 1, 1764) for "*A New History of the World from the Creation to the present Time. By William Guthrie, Esq. in 12 Volumes, 8vo. to be printed for Newbery, &c.*" This was to be an abridgement of all the volumes of the ancient and modern universal histories: and he urges a great variety of topics in praise of such contracting and condensing histories as the present subject required; which with equal ingenuity he could have opposed and confuted. But the whole is excellent as a composition. In the preceding year he drew up a preface or introduction to Dr. Brooks's "*System of Natural History*," 1763, in 6 vols. 12mo. a very dull and uninteresting work; but in this preface he gave such an admirable display of the subject, which he rendered so extremely interesting and captivating, that both himself and the booksellers were induced by it to engage him in his larger work of the "*History of the Earth and Animated Nature*." This, although finely written, is full of mistakes and defects, from which this preliminary essay or prospectus of the subject is entirely free: of this work Dr. Johnson said, "He is now writing a Natural History, and will make it as entertaining as a Persian tale." Vol. i. p. 82.

It remains to give some account of the contents of these volumes; and we shall intersperse it with a few remarks on each subject, adding some reflexions on the whole.

The first work is the '*Vicar of Wakefield*,' a novel, whose absurdities and inconsistencies are sufficiently glaring; but the tale is told with such a natural simplicity, some parts are so highly pathetic, and others so truly interesting, that cold must

be the critic who can enumerate the errors. It is not the least of its merits that the whole inculcates, in the strongest manner, the trust in an all-wise, a superintending, Providence. In the most distressed situations, the good vicar resigns himself, with a pious humility, to the dispensations of his God, and enjoys, undisturbed, the sweets of tranquil repose.

The first volume also contains 'The present State of polite Learning,' which is a pleasing rather than a recondite work: it is the bee sipping off the dew, without penetrating the flower.

In the second volume are the poems, of which the first in merit and in genius is the 'Traveller.' It is laboured with our author's most diligent care, and is really a finished poem. The 'Deserted Village' is perhaps more natural and pleasing; but his politics do not entirely suit our taste. The greater number of poems are light and trifling, but generally elegant and happy. The plays are added: they are sufficiently known, but have not attained their due proportion of praise; the 'Mistakes of the Night,' though truly comic, having been raised too high, while the 'Good natured Man' has been depressed too low.

The second volume contains the 'Letters from a Citizen of the World.' These, like all Goldsmith's prose works, are distinguished by an elegance and harmony of style, a happy selection of topics, and the singular art of saying no more than the reader expects or wishes. The author in general leaves off before the reader is satiated.

This happiness led to frequent applications for prefaces; and he succeeded accordingly. The most successful attempt of this kind was the Preface to Brooks's Natural History, contained in the fourth volume of this collection, which led the booksellers, his *patron*, to employ him in a greater work, 'The History of Animated Nature.' The spirited and ingenious preface to the Natural History led the readers to perceive a striking contrast in the work itself. Of the History of Animated Nature, we need not now speak, as it forms no part of the present collection. We may however remark, that we have never met with more ingenuity of language or manner, with so little novelty of remark, accuracy of distinction, or judgement of selection. The work is now wholly neglected, and perhaps forgotten by the greater number of our readers. We have heard it insinuated that the introduction to Brooks's work, as well as the preface, was probably the composition of Dr. Goldsmith. The fourth volume contains also the lives of Parnel and Bolingbroke, eight papers of the Bee, and the author's Essays.

On the whole, Goldsmith is conspicuous for a *curiosa felicitas* of expression, which has carried him through every attempt. He pushes on with little reflexion and little anxiety: his readers are pleased, and they *think* that they are instructed. Yet his ta-

ments are of no inferior order: with a little more cultivation, they would have been of the first class. At present, his example is not a happy one: it encourages mediocrity; for, when fame may be attained by pleasing qualities, the candidate for fame will often aim at no more.

ART. VIII.—*Sermons by the Rev. Thomas Gisborne, M. A.*
Vol. II. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THE worthy author of these sermons, zealous in his vocation, continues to give proof to the world of the sincerity with which he cultivates sacred truths. A vein of true piety pervades the whole of these discourses; and, though confessedly a man of great learning, he laudably condescends, in his style and language, to common apprehensions. In him, the world beholds a singular and honourable instance of a person possessed of large fortune, as well as splendid talents, devoting himself to the service of religion, and who, unambitious of the higher posts, contents himself with the lowest rank in the church. At an earlier period, he distinguished himself by his academical pursuits in the university, having been sixth in the list of honours at the annual examination, and having obtained the first medal for classical literature. His rental, at this time, was not less than between four and five thousand pounds a-year; and it was naturally presumed, that a seat in parliament, which was ready for him, would excite his ambition to be distinguished in that assembly, for which, by his talents and situation in life, he was so eminently prepared. Study and retirement, however, held out to him more pleasing objects; and, in accepting a small benefice, he was not overwhelmed by the duties of office, and could employ his mind in his favourite pursuits. To this choice we are indebted for some valuable works on morals; and we may contemplate, in these sermons, the useful character of a parish priest.

The discourses are strictly scriptural—a commendation which we cannot frequently bestow on similar productions, in which the writers too often aim at the elegance of a moral essay, rather than the soundness of Christian admonition. But, though the Scriptures be not in these pages, in our opinion, by any means too often quoted, we did not expect that a writer of such talents would have adhered so rigidly to the common version, of which alone he seems to make use, and to derive no advantage from the power he enjoys of consulting, with such facility, the original records of our faith. It was formerly the custom for preachers, in giving out the text, to correct the version, where it seemed, in their apprehension, to stand in

need of it: the practice was laudable. A scholar ought not to introduce into a discourse a single passage which he has not consulted in the original; and, where the translation is erroneous, he is bound to give it that better construction which the greater diligence and application of later times have proposed. This we thoroughly expected from our author; and, in this only, we confess that we felt ourselves disappointed.

One part of this volume throws great light on the doctrine of justification—the subject of so many discordant opinions—and aims at drawing a just line between that conduct which is deemed enthusiastic on the one hand, and scarcely amounting, on the other, to evangelic purity. The practical part is founded always on the doctrine of Scripture; and, from this uncorrupted source, corrects those errors and vices which are too prevalent in Christian society. The point of honour is a term not unfrequently made use of in polite company, as if the honour of the world were at all compatible with the real worth and soundness of Christian character.

‘What is the principle of conduct to which in the transactions of polished life the appeal is usually made? Attend a court of justice. Is an arbitrator recommended? It is because he is a man of *honour*. Is a plaintiff or a defendant noticed with complacency? It is because his proceedings have been *honourable*. Go to the senate. By what criteria are applause and censure apportioned there? By the rule of *honour*. Visit the circle of private society. The character of an individual is the theme of discussion. Animated eyes and eager voices speak his praise. Why? Because he is a *man of perfect honour*. Another person is named. Disapprobation contracts every brow, and sharpens every tongue. For what reason? “In such a transaction the behaviour of that man was *dishonourable*: yes, in another *his honour was impeached*.” Of the preceding picture I mean not indiscriminately to affirm that there are not exceptions to the likeness. But let any person, who has assigned even a slight measure of attention to the subject, pronounce whether, in each of the cases described, the representation be not accurately conformable to the general features of the original. Has the pulpit escaped the contagion? Comparatively it has preserved itself pure. Would to Heaven that in some of its compositions the public eye had not discerned traces and mixtures, which preclude me from ascribing to it unsullied purity! “The lips of the priest should keep knowledge; and they should seek the law at his mouth: for he is the messenger of the Lord of hosts.” Never may the pastor feed his flock with an intermixture of poisonous herbage! Never may he lead them to drink of streams, which flow from an unhallowed fountain!

‘Whence is this jargon? Has it founded its dominion on the application by St. Paul of the term *honourable* to marriage; on the testimony of approbation borne by the same apostle to *things of good report*; and on those passages of the Scriptures in which holiness is described as entitled to respect and praise? Very different are the foundations of its sway. It reigns, because multitudes “love the

praise of men more than the praise of God." It reigns, because "they receive honour one of another: and seek not that honour which cometh from God only."

'What is this idol, which men worship in the place of the living God? What is this principle, which they en throne in degradation of his sovereign word? Honour implies the favourable estimation entertained of an individual by others of his own line and place in society. The votary of honour may delude himself with the idea that, whatever be the ordinary expressions of his lips, his heart is dedicated to religion. But his heart is fixed on his idol, human applause. In the place of the love and the fear of God he substitutes the love of praise and the fear of shame. In the place of conscience he substitutes pride. For the dread of guilt he substitutes the apprehension of disgrace.

"My thoughts are not your thoughts, neither are your ways my ways, saith the Lord. That which is highly esteemed among men is abomination in the sight of God." Woe unto you, who thus put darkness for light, and proportionally thrust aside into darkness the light of the world, the oracles of the Most High. "Ye are they (like the Pharisees of old) who justify yourselves before men." Ye are they, who "teach for doctrines the commandments of men." Ye are they, who "make the commandments of God of none effect by your traditions." Ye are they who uphold the duellist. Ye are they who take the sword out of the hands of the law; and commit to every man the vindication of his real or imaginary wrongs. Ye are they who prefer the discharge of a gaming debt to the payment of the just demand of the famished tradesman. Ye are they who establish a principle of morality, baseless because not founded upon religion; scanty in its comprehension, because tolerant of many crimes and indifferent to numerous virtues; and however highly esteemed among men, abominable in the sight of God, because exalted in neglect or in contempt of his word, regardless of his service and his glory.' p. 380.

False pretensions to candor and liberality of opinion are justly censured in another passage, which deserves the attention of real Christians.

'The higher ranks of life may be those, in which this offence appears the most glaring: but it pervades, and perhaps equally over-spreads, every class in society. From the mouth of these apologisers no sin receives its appropriate denomination. Some lighter phrase is ever on the lips to obscure or to cloke its enormity, perhaps to transform it into a virtue. Is profaneness noticed? It is an idle habit by which nothing is intended. Is extravagance named? It is a generous disregard of money. Is luxury mentioned? It is a hospitable desire to see our friends happy. What is worldly-mindedness? It is prudence. What is pride? It is proper spirit, a due attention to our own dignity. What is ambition? A laudable desire of distinction and pre-eminence; a just sense of our own excellence and desert. What is devotedness to fashion? It is a due regard to the customs of the polite world. What is over-reaching? It is understanding our business. What is servility? It is skill in making our way to advancement. What are intemperance and sins of impurity? They are

indelicacies, irregularities, human frailties, customary indiscretions, the natural and venial consequences of cheerfulness, company, and temptation; the unguarded ebullitions of youth, which in a little time will satiate and cure themselves. Now all this is *candour*: all this is *charity*. If a reference be made to religion, these men immediately enlarge on the *mercy* of God. If constrained to speak of his threatenings, they advert to them distantly, briefly, with affected tenderness, as to a sort of law in dead letter held forth to terrify guilt and to confine it within reasonable bounds; but a law which they intimate that the justice of the Deity will never permit him to enforce. To paint sin in its genuine colours: to denounce the wrath of God against all ungodliness and unrighteousness of men: to proclaim from the word of inspiration that obstinate perseverance against light and knowledge in any one unholy disposition or practice will exclude from the kingdom of Heaven: to unfold the terrors of hell, of everlasting damnation, of the lake of inextinguishable fire, of the abodes of those whose smoke ascendeth for ever and ever: this is pharisaical punctiliousness, intolerable rigour, illiberal superstition, the frenzy of bigotry, the bitterness of misanthropy. The sons of *candour* and *charity* turn away with contempt. Nay, they profess to be roused with honest indignation against persons who thus misrepresent the counsels of a God, who would have all men to be saved: and stand forth in defence of his attributes injured and degraded by merciless preachers, who assume to themselves the character of his ambassadors, while they bar the gates of Heaven against the workmanship of his hands.'

p. 377.

Among persons of a certain stamp, our author himself may be ranked among enthusiasts: but we wish such persons to study his own description of enthusiasm, which—

—'entails (he says) a woe on the person whom it infects. It darkens his understanding: it enslaves him more and more to the dreams of a heated fancy: it teaches him to judge whether he is in a state of salvation rather by internal impulses and reveries than by a comparison of his own dispositions and conduct with the characteristic marks, by which the Scriptures discriminate the true Christian: and thus contributes in various ways to ensnare him into errors dangerous to his soul, and to encrease the difficulties in the way of his return to the form of sound doctrine, the words of truth and soberness. But its pernicious effects on others, the mischiefs scattered far and wide by this evil when called good, are incalculable. Enthusiasm disparages genuine piety, and causes it to be despised as lukewarm formality. It degrades many doctrines for the immoderate exaltation of one. It disgusts the sober and discourages the timid Christian. It exposes Christianity to the scoffs and taunts of its enemies; and furnishes a specious plea to the children of this world, who labour to represent earnestness in religion as hypocrisy, folly, or fanaticism.' p. 368.

'It is also stated, and occasionally in the shape of an apology, that enthusiasm originates from ignorance, unaccompanied by evil

design. The general statement may be grounded in truth. But let every man who urges it in the first place weigh the language of St. Paul, when that apostle describes himself as the chief of sinners; and observe, secondly, that he attributes his sin to ignorance. I draw no parallel, no comparison, between enthusiasm and persecution. But I would fervently exhort you to deduce from the expressions of St. Paul the legitimate and universally applicable conclusion: that ignorance, when you are surrounded with means and opportunities of knowledge, is wilful; that wilful ignorance is a sin; and that there is no offence for which wilful ignorance can be pleaded in justification.' P. 369.

The excellent precept in Scripture, that sanctifies the actions of common life, and makes the time employed in labour and study honourable, is well exemplified by our author. 'Whatever you do, do all to the glory of God, that God may in all things be glorified through Jesus Christ.'

'Thus if you are engaged in a mercantile transaction; reflect that God sees your proceedings, and the train of thought which passes in your heart. He sees whether you demand an unreasonable profit. He sees whether you are desirous of imposing on the other party. He sees whether you take pains to conduct yourself towards the person with whom you are dealing, not only with fairness and moderation, but also with kindness. All these things he sees, and marks them down against the day of judgement. If you have covenanted to execute a piece of work for an employer; consider that the eye of God is fixed upon you. He observes whether you perform your undertaking, whatever it be, carefully and effectually, as you would act under similar circumstances for yourself. He observes whether you honestly consign to your employer's service all the time for which he pays you: or whether you defraud him, when you presume that you shall escape discovery, by wasting part of it in idleness, or by expending it on business of your own. These things he observes; and marks them down against the great day. If you are cultivating your farm; if you are selling your articles in the market or in a shop; if you are serving a master in your daily labour; if you are managing the concerns of your friend or of your country: remember that God is contemplating all your motives, all your thoughts, all your words, all your actions; and that for all your motives and thoughts and words and actions you will have to render an account at the judgement-seat of Christ, when the books shall be opened and the dead shall be judged out of those things which are written in the books, according to their works.' P. 271.

In a sermon on divine grace, after introducing various instances of its power from the holy Scriptures, the objection from the supposed superiority of power with which it was supplied in former times, is obviated in the following animated manner.

'But these, you remark, are primeval examples, exhibited in the

days of the apostles. You will derive greater comfort from instances drawn from modern times and ordinary men. Take an instance then from the annals of your own country. Look to the character and conduct of Cranmer. In the general current of his proceedings, during the reign of Henry the Eighth, you behold a struggle between a mind intent on a conscientious adherence to duty, and a disposition naturally characterised by timidity. You behold him at one time strengthening himself with succour sought from above; and steadily pursuing his Christian purposes, regardless of the resentment of a furious and ungovernable monarch; at another, the victim of inherent weakness, tamely subservient to his master's will, overawed into culpable compliances. When danger, after the accession of Mary, mustered its terrors; Cranmer sunk in the conflict. Left to himself, in the hour of temptation he fell away. He renounced his faith! Again he looked to the grace of Christ, and he found it all-sufficient. Behold him chained to the stake, as the wind disperses at intervals the volumes of fire and smoke in which he is enveloped. Behold his undaunted demeanour: his face, full of peace and joy in the Holy Ghost, as it were the face of an angel. Behold him stretching forth into the flames the hand which had signed the recantation; and surveying with a steadfast eye the flesh wasting from the sinews, bone dropping away from bone. Hear him exclaiming with exulting fervor; "This hand offended: this hand shall suffer, this unworthy hand." Contemplate this spectacle; this inaccessibility to pain, this sacred fortitude, this substantial repentance, this complete subjugation of nature and its besetting sin; and say whether this is not the triumph of grace, whether this is not the finger of God.'

From these extracts, our readers will form a good opinion of the general tenor of the discourses before us. In every one of them we meet with something to strike and improve the hearer. We prize them highly; yet can scarcely avoid regretting, that the valuable time of the author has not rather been occupied in some more elaborate work on the Scriptures, in which his talents might have appeared to greater advantage. It is, we know, his duty to address his congregation from the pulpit every week; and compositions of this kind must occupy many of his leisure hours; yet, knowing his competency to study the Scriptures in their originals, and his advantages in pursuing the deepest researches, we have a right to expect—and may almost add, that the world has a right also—that he will dive more profoundly into scriptural truths, and from those inexhaustible mines draw forth their still latent and unexplored treasures.

ART. IX.—*The Life of Poggio Bracciolini, By the Rev. William Shepherd. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

THE character of Poggio Bracciolini, whose unremitting exertions, in the fifteenth century, recovered numerous gems of ancient learning and art from oblivion, has not yet lost its merited celebrity. Gibbon, in his 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,' (chap. lxxv.) bestows a just encomium on this zealous reviver of letters, who furnished subjects for his affecting picture of Rome in ruins (chap. lxxi.).

The accurate Fabricius*, to a list of the works of Poggio, has prefixed a concise yet comprehensive memoir. The biography of this indefatigable scholar has been composed but carelessly by L'Enfant, and more correctly by Recanati; while Mr. Roscoe, in his 'Life of Lorenzo de' Medici †, has also introduced a satisfactory account of his sagacity and persevering industry, during fifty years, to discover manuscripts in various parts of Europe.

With the memorials thus enumerated, the literary world might perhaps have been satisfied. The present additional monument to the fame of Bracciolini is thus, however, introduced by its author.

'The services rendered to the cause of literature by Poggio Bracciolini, have been noticed with due applause by Mr. Roscoe in his celebrated life of Lorenzo de' Medici. From the perusal of that elegant publication, I was led to imagine, that the history of Poggio must contain a rich fund of information respecting the revival of letters. A cursory examination of the Basil edition of his works, convinced me that I was not mistaken; and I felt a wish to direct the attention of the public to the merits of an author, whose productions had afforded me no small degree of pleasure. Being apprised that monsieur L'Enfant had given an account of the life and writings of Poggio, in two 12mo. volumes, entitled "Poggiana," I at first bounded my views to a translation of that work. Upon perusing it, however, I found it so ill arranged, and in many particulars so erroneous, that I was persuaded it would be a much more pleasant task to compose a new life of Poggio, than to correct the mistakes which deform the Poggiana. In this idea I was fully confirmed, by the perusal of Recanati's Osservazioni Critiche, in which monsieur L'Enfant is convicted of no less than one hundred and twenty-nine capital errors.

'I next turned my thoughts to the translation of the life of Poggio, written by Recanati, and prefixed by him to his edition of Poggio's history of Florence. But finding this biographical memoir,

* *Bibliotheca Latina medice et infima Aetatis*, lib. xv. vol. v. ed. Hæub. 1736.

† Vol. i. chap. i.

though scrupulously accurate, too concise to be generally interesting, and totally destitute of those minute particularities which alone can give a clear and correct idea of individual character, I was persuaded that the labours of Recanati by no means superseded any further attempts to elucidate the history of Poggio. I therefore undertook the task of giving a detailed account of the life and writings of that eminent reviver of literature; and being convinced, from a perusal of his epistolary correspondence, that his connexions with the most accomplished scholars of his age, would impose upon his biographer the duty of giving some account of his learned contemporaries, whilst his situation in the Roman chancery in some degree implicated him in the political changes, which, in his days, distracted Italy, I carefully examined such books as were likely to illustrate the literary, civil, and ecclesiastical history of the period of which I had to treat. From these books I have selected whatever appeared to be relevant to my subject; and I have also introduced into my narrative, such extracts from the writings of Poggio as tend to illustrate, not only his own character, but also that of the times in which he lived.' p. i.

The work is comprehended in eleven chapters; the want of an index to which, exhibits a censurable carelessness. Its style and arrangement show obviously that the author has endeavoured to make Mr. Roscoe his model.

With a concise summary of the life of Poggio, we shall proceed to lay before our readers a variety of selections.

'Poggio, the son of Guccio Bracciolini, was born in the year 1380, at Terranuova, a small town situated in the territory of the republic of Florence, not far from Arezzo.' p. i.

He studied the Latin language at Florence under John of Ravenna, and cultivated Grecian literature, assisted by the illustrious Manuel Chrysolaras. In the year 1401, he was introduced, at Rome, into the service of Boniface IX., and promoted to the office of writer of the Apostolic Letters.

At the time of his admission into the pontifical chancery, Italy was convulsed by faction. The schism of the west, which commenced two years before the birth of Poggio, and in its progress implicated six of his patrons, was terminated by the council of Constance, which he attended as secretary to John.

On the death of Boniface in 1404, Poggio was continued in office by Innocent VII., on whom he prevailed upon to elevate the learned Leonardo Aretino, his friend, to the dignity of scribe.

During the distractions of the Roman court, after the death of Innocent, he enjoyed a literary repose at Florence, where he was countenanced by that distinguished patron of literature, Niccolo Niccoli. He still retained his situation, and acted as apostolic scribe both to Alexander V. and his successor.

His friend, Leonardo Aretino, was elected to the chancellorship of Florence; and about this time married a young lady of Arezzo.

‘ This event was of course very interesting to the colleagues and friends of the bridegroom, and Poggio wrote to him on the occasion, informing him of the witticisms to which his present predicament had given rise, and inquiring what opinion his short experience had led him to form of the comforts of the conjugal state. Leonardo replied to Poggio's letter without delay. By the tenor of his answer, he seems to have found nothing unpleasant in matrimony, except its costliness. “ It is incredible,” says he, “ with what expense these new fashions are attended. In making provision for my wedding entertainment, I emptied the market, and exhausted the shops of the perfumers, oilmen, and poulterers. This however is comparatively a trivial matter; but of the intolerable expense of female dress and ornaments, there is no end. In short,” says he, “ I have in one night consummated my marriage, and consumed my patrimony.” P. 46.

Many interesting occurrences are narrated in the second chapter. Poggio, appointed secretary to John XXII., proceeds with him to Constance in 1414; where the celebrated council commenced which deposed the pontiff; and, notwithstanding the sanctimony of their protections, condemned and executed John Huss and Jerome of Prague for heresy.

After the dispersion of the papal household, Poggio remained at Constance, studying, with little success, the Hebrew language.

In a letter to Leonardo Aretino, Poggio relates, with impressive effect, the conduct of Jerome of Prague, the eloquent and spirited oration which he delivered at his trial in 1416, and the heroism he displayed at his execution.

The council which condemned him was formally dismissed by Martin V. in 1418.

Some of the obligations which literature owes to the researches of the accomplished and indefatigable Poggio, we enumerate from the third chapter.

‘ The vacancy of the pontifical throne; still affording to the officers of the Roman chancery a considerable degree of leisure, Poggio about this time undertook an expedition of no small importance to the interests of literature. Having received information that many ancient manuscripts of classic authors were scattered in various monasteries, and other repositories in the neighbourhood of Constance, where they were suffered to perish in neglected obscurity, he determined to rescue these precious relics from the hands of the barbarians, who were so little sensible of their value. He was not deterred from this laudable design by the inclemency of the season, or by the ruinous state of the roads; but with an industry and perseverance, which cannot be too highly applauded, he made several ex-

excursions to the places which were said to contain the objects of his research. His inquiries were not fruitless. A great number of manuscripts, some of which contained portions of classic authors, which the admirers of ancient learning had hitherto sought for in vain, were the reward of his literary zeal. The scholars of Italy took a lively interest in these investigations of their learned countryman. The noble art of printing has in modern times rendered books so easily accessible to all ranks of men, that we cannot enter into the feelings of those whose libraries were scantily furnished with volumes, which were slowly multiplied by the tedious process of transcription. But the epistolary correspondence of the studiosi of the fifteenth century, contains frequent and striking intimations of the value which was then set upon good modern copies of the works of classic writers. It may therefore be easily presumed, that the discovery of an ancient manuscript was a common subject of exultation to all the lovers of the polite arts. In the following letter from Leonardo Aretino to Poggio, congratulating him on the success of his expedition, and particularly on his acquisition of a perfect copy of Quintilian's Treatise on Oratory, the writer speaks the sentiments of the literary characters of the age.

"I have seen the letter which you wrote to our friend Niccolo, on the subject of your last journey, and the discovery of some manuscripts. In my opinion the republic of letters has reason to rejoice, not only on account of the acquisition of the works which you have already recovered, but also on account of the hope which I see you entertain of the recovery of others. It will be your glory to restore to the present age, by your labour and diligence, the writings of excellent authors, which have hitherto escaped the researches of the learned. The accomplishment of your undertaking will confer an obligation, not on us alone, but on the successors to our studies. The memory of your services will never be obliterated. It will be recorded to distant ages, that these works, the loss of which had been for so long a period a subject of lamentation to the friends of literature, have been recovered by your industry. As Camillus on account of his having rebuilt the city of Rome, was stiled its second founder, so you may be justly denominated the second author of all those pieces which are restored to the world by your meritorious exertions. I therefore most earnestly exhort you not to relax in your endeavours to prosecute this laudable design. Let not the expense which you are likely to incur, discourage you from proceeding. I will take care to provide the necessary funds. I have the pleasure of informing you, that from this discovery of yours, we have already derived more advantage than you seem to be aware of; for by your exertions we are at length in possession of a perfect copy of Quintilian. I have inspected the titles of the books. We have now the entire treatise, of which, before this happy discovery, we had only one half, and that in a very mutilated state. Oh what a valuable acquisition! What an unexpected pleasure! Shall I then behold Quintilian whole and entire, who, even in his imperfect state, was so rich a source of delight? I entreat you, my dear Poggio, send me the manuscript as soon as possible, that I may see it before I die. As to Asconius and Flaccus, I am glad that you have re-

covered them, though neither of these authors have conferred any additional grace on Latin literature. But Quintilian is so consummate a master of rhetoric and oratory, that when, after having delivered him from his long imprisonment in the dungeons of the barbarians, you transmit him to this country, all the nations of Italy ought to assemble to bid him welcome. I cannot but wonder that you and your friends did not eagerly take him in hand, and that, employing yourselves in the transcription of inferior writers, you should have neglected Quintilian—an author, whose works I will not hesitate to affirm, are more an object of desire to the learned than any others, excepting only Cicero's dissertation *De Republica*. I must next admonish you not to waste your time on the works which we already possess, but to search for those which we have not, especially the works of Cicero and Varro."

Poggio was far from being unconscious of the good service which he had done to the cause of letters, by the successful assiduity of his researches after the lost writers of antiquity. On the sixteenth of December of this year, he wrote to Guarino Veronese an epistle, in which, after duly extolling the importance and agreeable nature of the intelligence which he was about to announce, he gave him a particular account of the treasure which he had lately brought to light. From this letter it appears, that in consequence of information which Poggio had received, that a considerable number of books were deposited in the monastery of St. Gall, he took a journey to that town, accompanied by some of his friends. There they found a large number of manuscripts, and among the rest a complete copy of Quintilian, buried in rubbish and dust. For the books in question were not arranged in a library, but were thrown into the lowest apartment or dungeon of a tower, "which," says Poggio, "was not even a fit residence for a condemned criminal." Besides Quintilian, they found in this obscure recess, the three first, and one half of the fourth books of the *Argonautics* of Valerius Flaccus, and Asconius Pedianus's comment on eight of Cicero's Orations. The two latter manuscripts Poggio himself transcribed, with an intention of sending them to Leonardo Aretino, who, as appears by his letter quoted above, was so much elated by the revival of Quintilian, that he speaks of the discovery of Asconius and Flaccus as a matter of comparatively trifling moment.

Poggio zealously concurred in the wish of his friend Leonardo, to rescue from obscurity the lost works of Cicero. Nor were his endeavours to accomplish this valuable object entirely unsuccessful. In a monastery of the monks of Clugny, in the town of Langres, he found a copy of Cicero's Oration for Cæcina, of which he made a transcript for the use of his Italian friends. In the course of various journeys, which the vicissitudes of fortune obliged him to take at different periods of his life, he had the satisfaction to discover the following orations of the same author, the loss of which had been long deplored by the learned—*De Lege Agraria contra Rullum liber primus*—*Ejusdem liber secundus*—*Contra Legem Agrariam ad Populum*—*In L. Pisonem*. A copy of these orations is preserved in the abbey of Santa Maria, at Florence, to which is affixed a memorandum, which records the fact of their having been discovered by Poggio.

This memorandum indeed makes mention of seven orations as having been found by him in France and Germany; and the catalogue prefixed to the manuscript, besides the works abovementioned, enumerates the oration pro C. Rabirio Pisone—Pro C. Rabirio perduellionis reo—and pro Roscio comedo—but these orations have been torn from the volume in question. With the assistance of Bartolomeo di Montepulciano, Poggio also restored to light the poem of Silius Italicus—Lactantius's treatise de Irâ Dei et Opificio Hominiæ—Vegetius de Re Militari—Nonius Marcellus—Ammianus Marcellinus—Lucretius, Columella and Tertullian.

Before the time of Poggio, eight only of the comedies of Plautus were known to the classical student. But by the industry or good fortune of one Nicolas of Treves, whom Poggio employed in continuing the researches in the monasteries of Germany, which he was unable to conduct in person, twelve more were brought to light. When Poggio had notice of this discovery, he was highly elated, and strenuously exhorted the cardinal Ursini to dispatch a trusty messenger to bring these valuable treasures to Rome. "I was not only solicitous, but importunate, with his eminence," says Poggio in a letter to Niccolo Niccoli, to send somebody for the books. The cardinal did not however second the impatience of the Italian literati, who waited nearly two years before the manuscripts in question arrived in Rome, whither they were brought by Nicolas of Treves himself.

Besides Plautus's comedies, Nicolas of Treves brought to Rome a fragment of Aulus Gellius.

Poggio also found a copy of Julius Frontinus de Aquæductis, and eight books of Firmicus's treatise on the mathematics, lying neglected and forgotten in the archives of the monastery of Monte Cassino; and at the instance of Niccolo Niccoli he prevailed upon the governors of that religious house, to allow him to convey these manuscripts to his own residence, for the purpose of decyphering and copying them. After he had transcribed Frontinus with his own hand, he returned the original manuscript to the library where it had been discovered. He also procured from Cologne the fifteenth book of Petronius Arbiter, a small fragment of which author he had before discovered in Britain. By his exertions also the entire work of Columella was brought to light, of which only fragments had been known to the earlier scholars. For the preservation of Calpurnius's Bucolic also, the republic of letters is indebted to the sagacious diligence of Poggio.

In a long and elaborate letter which Poggio received from Francesco Barbaro, and which bears the date of June 7th, 1417, this learned patrician congratulates his correspondent on the glory which he had acquired by his labours in the cause of learning, and ascribes to the unremitting diligence of his investigations, the recovery of the works of the following authors, in addition to others which have been already enumerated; Manilius, Lucius Septimius, Caper, Eutychius, and Probus. From this letter of Barbaro, it appears, that the republic of letters had expected that Poggio would have been materially assisted in his inquiries after the relics of ancient literature, by Bartolomeo di Montepulciano, but that in consequence of

the ill state of his associate's health, he was under the necessity of taking upon himself almost the entire conduct and trouble of the research.

'The expense occasioned by these literary excursions was a heavy incumbrance upon Poggio, whose property could by no means bear any extraordinary diminution: and the fatigue and inconvenience which he experienced in the course of his travels in quest of manuscripts, induced him at one time to declare to Niccolo Niccoli that he could not possibly spend more time in this pursuit. This declaration was however nothing more than the result of a temporary dejection of spirits. During the remainder of his life he eagerly took advantage of every opportunity of recovering the lost writers of antiquity. In several of his letters, the zeal with which he endeavoured to procure good copies of the Latin classics, is strikingly conspicuous.' P. 98.

Under Martin V., Poggio held no office, but traveled in the pontifical suite.

Invited by Beaufort, bishop of Winchester—the cardinal Beaufort of our Shakspeare—he quitted the Roman court at Mantua in 1418, and repaired to England, where he arrived, 'at one of the darkest periods which occur in the whole British annals.' He contemplated with vexation the gloomy contrast between Britain and his native Italy.

From Beaufort, Poggio could obtain only a benefice, the annual income of which did not produce 120 florins. Averse to a clerical life, anxious for his return to Italy, and tempted by numerous proposals, he at length accepted the office of secretary to Martin V.; and, leaving England, once more fixed his residence at Rome. The events of his inauspicious visit to England rarely occur in his works. The following passages are curious.

'A trait of the manners of the English in the fifteenth century, occurs in his dialogue on nobility, in which he thus notices the English aristocracy—"The nobles of England deem it disgraceful to reside in cities, and prefer living in retirement in the country. They estimate the degree of a man's nobility by the extent of his estates. Their time is occupied in agricultural pursuits, and they trade in wool and sheep, not thinking it at all derogatory to their dignity, to be engaged in the sale of the produce of their lands. I have known a wealthy merchant, who had closed his mercantile concerns, vested his money in land, and retired into the country, become the founder of a noble race; and I have seen him freely admitted into the society of the most illustrious families. Many persons also of ignoble blood, have been advanced to the honors of nobility by the favour of their sovereign, which they have merited by their warlike achievements."

'In his *Historia Disceptativa Convivialis*, he relates another trait of the manners of our forefathers, which he records as an instance of their politeness. A splenetic traveler would probably have quoted it

as a proof of their love of good living. "The English," says he, "if they meet with any one at whose table they have dined; even though the rencounter should take place ten days after the feast, thank him for his good entertainment; and they never omit this ceremony, lest they should be thought insensible of his kindness."

• From the following story, which Poggio has chronicled in his *Facetie*, we learn, that at this early period, the English were addicted to the practice of diverting themselves at the expense of their brethren on the other side of St. George's channel, and that when he visited this country, an Irishman was already become the common hero of a tale of absurdity.

"When I was in England I heard a curious anecdote of an Irish captain of a ship. In the midst of a violent storm, when all hands had given themselves over for lost, he made a vow, that if his ship should be saved from the imminent danger which threatened to overwhelm her, he would make an offering at the church of the Virgin Mary of a waxen taper, as large as the main-mast. One of the crew observing that it would be impossible to discharge this vow, since all the wax in England would not be sufficient to make such a taper—Hold your tongue, said the captain, and do not trouble yourself with calculating whether I can perform my promise or not, provided we can escape the present peril." P. 140.

In the misfortunes of Eugenius IV., Poggio was himself involved. Attempting to escape after the insurrection at Rome, in 1433, the papal secretary was taken prisoner, and reduced to purchase his liberty from an obdurate soldier. He thence proceeded to Florence.

When his patron, Cosmo de' Medici, was banished, Poggio addressed to him a noble consolatory epistle; and, in his name, commenced a virulent literary contest with the learned Francisco Filelfo, an inveterate enemy to the house of Medici, as well as to Niccolo Niccoli.

We shall offer a specimen, from the translation of Mr. Shepherd, of the urbanity and delicate language employed in this controversy. Filelfo indulges his rage in verse.

' —thy weak nerves, by stale debauch unstrung,
Thy half-formed accents tremble on thy tongue,
Of filth enamoured, like a hideous swine,
Daily thou wallowest in a sea of wine.
Earth, air, and ocean, join their ample store,
To cram thy maw, that ceaseless craves for more;
And, worse than beast! to raise thy deaden'd gust,
In nature's spite thou satest thy monstrous lust.
Black list of crimes! but not enough to fill
Poggio, thy ample register of ill.
Like some black viper, whose pestiferous breath,
Spreads through the ambient air the seeds of death,
Obscure and still thou wind'st thy crooked way,
And unsuspecting virtue falls thy prey.' P. 278.

The prosaic retaliation is alike temperate.

“ Who is there, Filelfo, that does not despise and condemn you ? Which of the guests who frequent your house have any regard for you, except those who compensate the annoyance which they receive from your conversation, by the charms of your wife. Thou stinking he-goat ! thou horned monster ! thou malevolent detractor ! thou father of lies and author of discord ! May the divine vengeance destroy thee as an enemy of the virtuous, a parricide who endeavourest to ruin the wise and good by lies and slanders, and the most false and foul imputations. If thou must be contumelious, write thy satires against the suitors of thy wife—discharge the putridity of thy stomach upon those who adorn thy forehead with horns.” P. 276.

To the pride of men of letters, the anecdote which follows will be gratifying.

“ Whilst Poggio was thus providing for himself a place of peaceful retirement, he received from the administrators of the Tuscan government a testimony of respect, equally honourable to the givers and to the receiver. By a public act which was passed in his favour, it was declared, that whereas he had announced his determination to spend his old age in his native land, and to dedicate the remainder of his days to study ; and whereas his literary pursuits would not enable him to acquire the property which accrued to those who were engaged in commerce, he and his children should from thenceforth be exempted from the payment of all public taxes.” P. 290.

In exploring the remains of ancient sculpture and architecture, his researches were animated by unwearied perseverance. Although our extracts have been already ample, we must be indulged on this fascinating subject, while we exceed our accustomed limits.

“ The study of ancient sculpture had long engaged the attention of Poggio, who was not less diligent in rescuing its relics from obscurity, than in searching for the lost writers of antiquity. During his long residence in Rome, he assiduously visited the monuments of imperial magnificence, which fill the mind of the traveler with awe, as he traverses the ample squares and superb streets of the former mistress of the nations. The ruins of these stupendous edifices he examined with such minute accuracy, that he became familiarly acquainted with their construction, their use, and their history. Hence the learned men who had occasion to repair to the pontifical court, were solicitous to obtain his guidance in their visits to these wonderful specimens of industry and taste. Whenever the avarice or the curiosity of his contemporaries prompted them to search into the ruined magnificence of their ancestors, Poggio attended the investigation, anxious to recover from the superincumbent rubbish, some of those breathing forms, the offspring of Grecian art, which the refined rapacity of Roman emperors had selected from amongst the spoils of Greece, as ornaments worthy to adorn the temples and palaces of the capital of the world. Nor did he confine these re-

searches to the precincts of Rome. The neighbouring district witnessed his zeal for the restoration of the monuments of ancient sculpture. With this interesting object in view, he visited Crypta Ferrata, Tusculum, Ferentinum, Alba, Arpinum, Alatrium, and Tiburtum. Whilst he was fitting up his villa, he had the good fortune to pass through the district of Casentino, at the time when an antique bust of a female was discovered by some workmen who were employed in digging up the foundation of a house. This bust he purchased and added to his collection. His inquiries after specimens of ancient art were also extended into distant countries. Being informed that one Francesco di Pistoia was on the eve of embarking for Greece, he requested him with the utmost earnestness, to procure for him any relics of Grecian statuary which he might be able to obtain in the course of his travels. At the same time he wrote to a Rhodian, of the name of Suffretus, a celebrated collector of antique marbles, to inform him that he could not bestow upon him a greater pleasure, than by transmitting to him one or more of the pieces of sculpture which he might be able to spare out of his well furnished gallery. Suffretus, actuated by a noble spirit of liberality, immediately on Francesco's arrival in Rhodes, consigned to his care three marble busts, one of Juno, another of Minerva, and the third of Bacchus, said to be the works of Polyclethus and Praxiteles, and one statue of the height of two cubits, all which he destined for Poggio. The annunciation of this intelligence was received by Poggio with the highest exultation. The names of such eminent artists as Polyclethus and Praxiteles raised, indeed, in his mind a prudent degree of scepticism: but he dwelt with fond anticipation upon the pleasure which he should experience on the arrival of the busts; and he instantly assigned to each of his expected guests their proper stations in his villa. "Minerva," says he in a letter to Niccolò Niccoli, "will not, I trust, think herself improperly situated beneath my roof—I will place her in my library. I am sure Bacchus will find himself at home in my house: for if any place is his appropriate residence, that place is my native district where he is held in peculiar honour. As to Juno, she shall retaliate the infidelities of her straying husband by becoming my mistress."

The busts in question arrived in safety at the place of their destination; but Francesco alleged that the statue had been stolen out of the ship in which he returned from Greece. Poggio strongly suspected that the plunderer who had deprived him of this portion of his expected treasure, was no other than Francesco himself. In this suspicion he was confirmed by his subsequent conduct. For this faithless agent, having been afterwards commissioned by Andreolo Giustiniano, a Genoese of considerable learning, to convey to Poggio some antique busts, disposed of this valuable deposit to Cosmo de' Medicis. Poggio did not tamely bear this injury, but inveighed against the dishonesty of the Pistoian with great bitterness in a letter which he addressed to Giustiniano. From this letter it appears, that in addition to his groups of ancient statues, Poggio had adorned his villa by a collection of antique coins and gems. To these pursuits he was instigated, not merely by the desire of illustrating the classic authors, by a reference to works of ancient art, but also by an enthusiastic

admiration of the sculptured wonders, the productions of men endowed with superlative talents, who, rising from individual to general nature, combined in their imaginations and embodied with their plastic hands, those finished forms, which, as it were, fill the mind of the spectator, and raise him to the exalted idea of perfection. On this subject he thus expressed himself in a letter to Francesco di Pistoia—"I am struck with awe by the genius of the artist, when I see the powers of nature herself represented in marble. Different men are visited by different diseases. My infirmity is an admiration of the works of excellent sculptors: for I cannot but be affected with astonishment by the skill of the man who gives to inanimate substance the expression of animation." P. 291.

In moral depravity, Poggio had kept pace with his clerical contemporaries.

Whilst the uncertainty of his future destination had prevented him from entering into the married state, his passions had gained the mastery over his principles, and he had become the father of a spurious offspring. Reminding him of this circumstance, "you have children," said the cardinal, "which is inconsistent with the obligations of an ecclesiastic; and by a mistress which is discreditable to the character of a layman." To these reproaches Poggio replied in a letter replete with the keenest sarcasm. He pleaded guilty to the charge which had been exhibited against him, and candidly confessed, that he had deviated from the paths of virtue. "I might answer to your accusation," said he, "that I have children, which is expedient for the laity; and by a mistress, in conformity to the custom of the clergy from the foundation of the world. But I will not defend my errors—you know that I have violated the laws of morality, and I acknowledge that I have done amiss." Endeavouring however to palliate his offence—"do we not," says he, every day, and in all countries, meet with priests, monks, abbots, bishops, and dignitaries of a still higher order, who have families of children by married women, widows, and even by virgins consecrated to the service of God?" P. 199.

At the advanced age of fifty-five, he began to reform, and in the month of December, 1435, married a Tuscan lady, Vaggia—daughter of Gherio Maucante de' Bondelmonti—who had not yet seen eighteen summers.

His tenderness of heart, on this occasion, our readers may appreciate by the incident which follows:

In order to prepare the way for his marriage, he was obliged to dismiss a mistress who had borne him twelve sons and two daughters. Nor was this the only, or the severest trial of his feelings. Four of his illegitimate children were living at the time of his separation from their mother. In consequence of his marriage, the inheritance which, previously to that event, he had secured to these pledges of illicit love by a bull of legitimation, was destined to others, and they were obliged to submit to all the hardships of poverty." P. 301.

No remorse, however, disturbed his matrimonial felicity. In 1436, he accompanied the court of Eugenius to Bologna; and, soon after his arrival, in a letter to the cardinal of St. Angelo, he expatiates on the exemplary virtues and exquisite beauties of his wife. We select a curious passage from this epistle.

"Our friend Zucharo was accustomed to say, when he wished to commend some exquisitely dressed dish, that it was so delicately seasoned that the least alteration in its composition would spoil it. So say I of my wife. There is nothing which I wish to be added to her character, nor any thing which I wish to be taken away from it." p. 308.

The death of Niccolo Niccoli, whose liberality and pecuniary assistance had encouraged all his labours, was sensibly felt by Poggio, who composed the funereal eulogy of this friend to letters.

The disgraceful contention with Filelfo is revived in the eighth chapter. Desirous to show the characters of the combatants, and of the period in which they lived, Mr. Shepherd is unnecessarily diffuse on this disgusting topic. The remaining chapters principally relate to the history of the times, to the works of Poggio—for the list of which we have referred to Fabricius—and to the circumstances under which they were composed. On these chapters, we cannot bestow a minute attention. In 1444, Poggio was deprived, by death, of his earliest friend, Leonardo Aretino. Ever alive to his own interest, after the death of Eugenius, he obtained, by artful flatteries, the generous patronage of Nicolas V.

In 1453, he succeeded Carlo Aretino in the chancellorship of the Tuscan republic.

In 1455, Nicolas V., the founder of the Vatican library, 'one of the brightest ornaments of the papal throne,' 'terminated his career of glory.'

The labours of Poggio closed with his death, in 1459. His wife had borne him five sons—of whom Mr. Shepherd has collected biographical notices—and a daughter.

In the following extract, Mr. Shepherd gives us a summary of Bracciolini's literary character.

'As a scholar, Poggio is entitled to distinguished praise. By assiduous study he made a considerable proficiency in the Greek language, and became intimately conversant with the works of the Roman classic authors. In selecting as his exemplar in Latin composition, that most elegant of all models, the style of Cicero, he manifested the discernment of true taste. His spirited endeavours to imitate this exquisite model, were far from being unsuccessful. His diction is flowing, and his periods are well balanced. But by the occasional admission of barbarous words and unauthorised phrase-

ology, he reminds his reader, that at the time when he wrote, the iron age of literature was but lately terminated. His most striking fault is diffuseness—a diffuseness which seems to arise, not so much from the copiousness of his thoughts, as from the difficulty which he experienced in clearly expressing his ideas. It must, however, be observed, that he did not, like many modern authors who are celebrated for their Latinity, slavishly confine himself to the compilation of centos from the works of the ancients. In the prosecution of his literary labours, he drew from his own stores; and those frequent allusions to the customs and transactions of his own times, which render his writings so interesting, must, at a period when the Latin language was just rescued from the grossest barbarism, have rendered their composition peculiarly difficult. When compared with the works of his immediate predecessors, the writings of Poggio are truly astonishing. Rising to a degree of elegance, to be sought for in vain in the rugged Latinity of Petrarca and Coluccio Salutati, he prepared the way for the correctness of Politiano, and of the other eminent scholars whose gratitude has reflected such splendid lustre on the character of Lorenzo de' Medici.' p. 486.

That we have been highly interested by many parts of this laborious compilation, the number and extent of our extracts will evince. For care and industry, Mr. Shepherd is certainly entitled to our applause. He is sometimes tediously diffuse on subjects of trivial importance; yet his anxiety respecting the fate of his labours may readily be dismissed. We shall only add, that his style, if occasional instances of affectation and inadvertency be pardoned, (as 'the bond of friendship was for ever *sundered*;' 'all over Italy;' 'took up his residence;' 'more labour than profit;' &c.) is usually elegant and correct.

ART. X.—*A Treatise on the Law of Insurance, in four Books; I. Of marine Insurances, II. Of Bottomry and Respondentia, III. Of Insurance upon Lives, IV. Of Insurance against Fire. By Samuel Marshall, Serjeant at Law. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 8s. Boards. Butterworth. 1802.*

IF the genius of warlike adventure opened avenues to knowledge, the spirit of gain has perpetuated the intercourse of distant nations, animated curiosity, administered to ever-recurring necessity, and secured unceasing opportunities to science. Traffic is the talisman which amuses ignorance or softens ferocity, while over oceans and through deserts philosophers explore the remotest regions of this diversified planet.

Every enlightened age has honored mercantile exertion. Among examples less magnificent, antiquity recalls Phœnicia, ancient sovereign of the sea, Carthage, her colony, long con-

tending with Rome for the empire of the world, and numerous nations in European and Asiatic Greece, enriched or protected by marine establishments.

Imperial Rome, consummating her glory (under the guidance of the Antonines) associated commerce with conquest, overpassed the limits of extended dominion, and satiated luxury with foreign allurements—Scythian furs, oriental silks, odours, diamonds, and ‘barbaric pearls.’

Awakened, nourished, and preserved from decay, on the propitious shores of the Mediterranean Sea, Commerce, after she had increased the power, or adorned the pomp of fallen empires, diffused a feeble light on the gloomy ages which succeeded the decline of Rome. At length, her renovated lustre cheered the climates of the north, and, in the British isles, gradually brightened into meridian splendor.

With patriotic exultation we might pursue the progress of this change: we might trace by what various causes, by what eventful combinations, trade, developed into a principle of strength, imparted to Britain gigantic vigor—a vigor which many have imagined must rapidly decline; forgetful that our *commercial empire* is founded on principles (and these, if our limits allowed, we could develop) essentially different from the causes which have occasioned the transitory splendor and ultimate decay of other trading nations in ancient and modern times.

Too often, as in this instance, do the multiform objects submitted to our attention tempt us into paths of pleasing or elaborate research, which our severer duties constrain us to abandon.

‘Cynthia aurea
Vellit.’

Obedient to these duties, we must divert our attention to a single yet interesting object of commercial jurisprudence.

Until that accomplished *judge*, whose eloquence and sagacity English lawyers will ever revere, had directed his cultivated talents to the investigation of maritime law and mercantile usages—until lord *Mansfield* had encouraged Mr. *Park* to prosecute his able work on ‘*Marine Insurances*’—the principles of insurance-law, applicable to the trade of England, were fluctuating and uncertain. Exerting a power, for political ends, to direct or control the exercise of trade itself, governments impose restraints and regulations on the private contracts of merchants; and, among different trading nations, the construction and efficacy of the contract of insurance often differs. Hence, systematic compilations of history, principles, and practice, as they prevail or change in various countries, will be always valuable. Amid the causes which have concurred to

support the superiority of British commerce, the facility of effecting insurances is not the least considerable.

The laws of insurance were, in England, first methodically arranged by Mr. *Park*, who collected and reduced to system the decisions of our courts, and presented an excellent treatise to the world.

The publication of serjeant Marshall, which we hasten to examine, possesses neither the advantage of original compilation, nor of enlivened style: yet, for laborious and learned research, well-established principles, precision of detail, ingenious reasoning, and perspicuous diction, it merits applause and distinction. The mode of arrangement must be approved by men of business, whether their occupation be law or trade.

The work is usefully accompanied by a preface, a list of the cases cited, an analysis of the contents, an appendix containing precedents, and a general index.

The author proposes, as his design,

— ‘To collect from every authentic source, and to ascertain, with as much precision as the subject will admit of, the genuine principles of the law of insurance; and so to arrange and methodise them, that not only lawyers, but merchants and others, might, without much difficulty, acquire a competent knowledge of them.’ Vol. i. p. iii.

‘I perceived that the leading principles which govern contracts of insurance lie within a narrow compass; and that it is only the application of those principles to particular cases, that could form a work of general utility.’ Ibid.

‘The subject has been divided, as nearly as it could be, according to the natural order of events, from the first idea of the contract, till the final close of the transactions upon which it is to operate, or which arise out of it.

‘The numerous cases that have been decided in the courts of Westminster, upon questions of insurance within the last 60 or 70 years, afford the best materials for a treatise on this subject. They at once supply the rules of law, and show the application of them.’ Vol. i. p. iv.

The serjeant has introduced ‘all the decided cases’ which he had ‘been able to collect, upon each branch of the subject, rejecting such only as’ he ‘deemed unworthy of notice.’ If, with us, the reader compare the cases cited in the last edition of the work of Mr. *Park* with those contained in the treatise now under our review, he will perhaps be surprised that so many should have been summarily consigned by the serjeant to oblivion.

On this subject he observes :

‘ In abridging these cases, I have observed one uniform rule. Each will be found to consist of three distinct parts ;—the facts, the decision, and the reasons assigned for it.—Where the decision of a case cannot be well understood, without showing the points insisted upon in argument, these are briefly stated.’ Vol. i. p. v.

‘ A few of the cases have never before been in print. Some others I have cited from manuscript notes, which seemed preferable to any hitherto published.’ Ibid.

‘ There is scarcely any contract which affords a greater number of questions of doubt and difficulty than that of marine insurance. Though the principles of the law applicable to this contract, are, in general, well defined ; yet the policy being usually of one uniform tenor, and the transactions upon which it is to operate, infinitely various and complicated, the conflicting rights of the parties are often so equally balanced, that it is impossible to decide between them, without sometimes resorting to very nice distinctions. It often happens, too, that the real justice of the case, as between the parties, must yield to the strict rules of law : And it seems to be a general subject of complaint, in most commercial countries, that, upon such occasions, courts of justice are sometimes tempted to forsake the rules of law, and to lean in favour of the suffering party. It is not to be wondered at, then, if the doctrines delivered from authority in Westminster Hall should be found, in some few instances, to be irreconcilable with the true principles of the law of insurance.’ Vol. i. p. vi.

‘ Wherever I have found any decision, or any doctrine advanced, which militated against any acknowledged principle of law, I have, with a proper freedom, but with decency and respect, pointed them out to the notice of the reader, with such observations as I thought it my duty to make on them.’ Vol. i. p. vii.

‘ With respect to Bottomry and Respondentia ; though these contracts are not at present much in use in this country, I have collected from the Roman law and from foreign authors, such materials as seemed necessary to enable me to form a consistent treatise on this branch of the subject.

‘ Insurance upon Lives, and Insurance against Fire, are now become very important contracts in this country. Upon each of these I have put together all the materials I could collect, and have digested them into such a form, as seemed most likely to render those parts of the book useful to such persons as may have occasion to consult them.’ Vol. i. p. vii.

From the preface we proceed to the work.—Book I. contains seventeen chapters.

The first chapter, on *insurances in general*, like the introduction of Mr. Park, attempts to trace the origin and progress of *marine law* and of the *law of insurance* in ancient and modern times. Among other aids, the foreign treatises on maritime commerce and insurance—principally those by *Cleirac*, *Emerigon*, *Pothier*, and *Valin*; the English writings of *Malyne*, *Molloy*, *Magins*, *Wesket*, *Millar* and *Park*, and the usages and ordinances of various countries—have furnished materials which will afford a few useful extracts.

1. Marine insurances, including the subject of bottomry and respondentia, which are a species of marine insurance :

2. Insurances upon lives ; and

3. Insurances against losses by fire.

The first of these will be the subject of the present book.

Marine Insurances.

Marine insurances are made for the protection of persons, having an interest in ships, or goods on board, from the loss or damage which may happen to them from the perils* of the sea, during a certain voyage, or a fixed period of time.' p. 2.

' The utility of marine insurances cannot be better expressed than in the words of the preamble to the stat. 43 Eliz. c. 12. which recites that, " By means of policies of insurance it cometh to pass, upon the loss or perishing of any ship, there followeth not the undoing of any man ; but the loss lighteth rather easily upon many, than heavily upon few ; and rather upon them that adventure not, than those that do adventure ; whereby all merchants, especially of the younger sort, are allured to venture more willingly and more freely."

' Much pains and industry have been employed in fruitless endeavours to discover the origin of marine insurances. This, like every attempt to trace the first imperfect beginnings of those inventions which have arisen by imperceptible degrees out of human necessities, has only terminated in doubt and disappointment. Some inquiry, however, upon this subject, may be expected in this place ; and yet the most careful researches scarcely enable us to ascertain about what time this contract first came into general use even in Italy, where it seems to have had its origin.' Vol. i. p. 3.

' According to Malyne, they ' (the Lombards) ' introduced it into England somewhat earlier than into the neighbouring countries on the continent ; and, as a proof of this, he says, that even Antwerp, in its meridian glory, borrowed insurance from England, and

* ' In compliance with custom the word *peril* is here used in a sense in which it is not usually understood. It does not here mean *danger*, *hazard*, *jeopardy*, according to its common acceptation ; for to say that a loss was occasioned by a particular *peril*, would, according to that acceptation, be to say that the loss arose from the *danger* of such loss. In insurance the word *peril* generally signifies the *happening* of the event or misfortune of which *danger* was apprehended.'

that down to the time in which he wrote (1622), there was in every policy made at Antwerp, and other places in the Low Countries, a clause inserted, that it should be in all things the same as policies made in Lombard-street, in the city of London, the place where the Lombards are known to have first settled, and carried on their commerce in England, and where the merchants of London used to hold their meetings before the Royal Exchange was built.

‘Anderson says, that the vast commerce carried on about the middle of the 16th century, between England and the Netherlands, introduced the practice of insuring from losses by sea, by a joint contribution. But the preamble to the stat. 43 Eliz. c. 12, which was passed in 1601, distinctly states, that it had been an immemorial usage among merchants, both English and foreign, when they made any great adventure, to procure insurance to be made on their ships or goods adventured. From this it may reasonably be supposed, that insurance must have been in use in England long before the middle of the preceding century.’ Vol. i. p. 10.

‘In England, where the practice of insurance has been the most extensive, fewer positive laws have been made to regulate it, than in any other country; and hence the practice of it with us has been found most conformable to the general usage of trade. Some few statutes have passed, from time to time, to restrain the abuses of insurance, but not one has yet been made, either to ascertain any old principle, or to sanction any new one. This may be accounted for, not by supposing, with a learned writer on the law of insurances, that this law was already well settled, and its principles understood in most of the neighbouring commercial countries, before the use of it became extensive in England; but because the law of merchants is considered as a branch of the common law, and therefore the custom of merchants, in any one particular, being once clearly ascertained in any of the supreme courts, acquires from thenceforth the force of law, without the sanction of any higher authority. It would therefore have been an useless labour for the legislature to enact those very usages, by positive law, which are already considered as part of the law of the land. Besides, what is or is not the custom of merchants is much better ascertained in the investigation of particular cases, in courts of justice, than it could be by parliament, with all the information and assistance it could obtain.’ Vol. i. p. 20.

Among writers on this subject, the French appear distinguished.

‘France has, in more modern times, produced three very valuable treatises on the subject of insurances. Valir’s commentary on the ordinance of the marine is of the highest value upon every topic of marine law. On the branch which relates to insurance, his commentary is clear, acute, and instructive. Pothier, in his treatise on contracts, unites the most profound learning with the purest morals and the most comprehensive judgment. That upon insurance is neat, concise, and masterly. Emerigon, whose treatise is confined to

the subject of insurance, unites great learning with great practical knowledge. His book is, of all the foreign publications on this subject, the most useful to an English lawyer.' Vol. i. p. 22.

' With respect to judicial decisions, none are considered as binding authorities in our superior courts; but such as have been there determined, and even these may be re-considered; and if, upon a full examination, they are found to militate against any clear and indisputable principle of law, they may, as in other cases, be overruled. As to foreign decisions, though they are of no authority in our courts, yet some few will be found cited in this work, in order to shew, upon doubtful points, how learned men in other countries have understood the principles of that law which is supposed to be in force in this. *Valet pro ratione, non pro introducto jure.*' Vol. i. p. 23.

' During the time when lord chief justice Lee presided in the court of King's Bench, many cases came before him which were chiefly decided at *Nisi prius*, but upon such just and sound principles, that very few of them afterwards came before the court for reconsideration.

' Upon lord Mansfield's succeeding to the same high office, upon the death of sir Dudley Ryder, he soon found a considerable influx of business to the court of King's Bench, arising, in a great measure, from the celebrity of his own talents. A great increase of insurances, not only upon British commerce, but likewise upon that of other countries, produced about this time a number of causes upon this subject, to which it became necessary for him to turn his particular attention; and indeed he seems to have taken pleasure in the discussion of questions arising upon this contract, in which, more perhaps than upon any other subject, he displayed the power of his great and comprehensive mind. From the books of the common law very little could be obtained: but upon the subject of marine law, and the particular subject of insurances, the foreign authorities were numerous, and in general satisfactory. From these, and from the information of intelligent merchants, he drew those leading principles which may be considered as the common law of the sea, and the common law of merchants, which he found prevailing throughout the commercial world, and to which almost every question of insurance was easily referable. Hence the great celebrity of his judgements upon such questions, and hence the respect they commanded in foreign countries*.

' Many great and important questions on the law of insurance have occurred since lord Mansfield's time, the decision of which proves that neither the learning or the talents of the judges of Westminster Hall have been diminished since he retired from it.' Vol. i. p. 28.

* Of this there cannot be a better proof than the following:—Emerigon, though not altogether free from national prejudices, after giving an account of the decision of the court of King's Bench, in the case of *Lavabre v. Walter*, concludes with these words;—*On ne sauroit s'empêcher d'admirer cette manière de procéder,*

Literature—averse to a *continued* familiarity with law or merchandise—obliges us to satisfy our commercial and forensic readers, by a concise statement of the plan pursued. An essential object of insurance will afterwards induce us to select passages.

The arrangement differs from that of Mr. Park, but is simple and perspicuous. The chapters, subdivided into sections, elucidate, in detail, their respective titles. The prominent subjects are: '1. An introductory chapter, Of insurances in general;' Chapter 2, treats 'Of the parties to the contract;' '3. Of the subject matter of marine insurances;' '4. Of the interest of the insured in the subject matter of the insurance;' '5. Of the voyage;' '6. Of the risks or perils against which marine insurances may be made;' '7. Of the policy;' '8. Of warranties;' '9. Of representations;' '10. Of concealment;' '11. Of the ship;' '12. Of deviation;' '13. Of loss;' '14. Of abandonment;' '15. Of the adjustment of losses;' '16. Of return of premium;' and '17. Of the proceedings in actions on policies of insurance.'

The opening of a chapter may farther explain the mode of subdividing the principal title.

' CHAP. III. *Of the subject Matter of Marine Insurances.*

' Having shown in the foregoing chapter what persons may be parties to this contract, we now proceed to consider the subject matter of it.

' Insurances are most commonly made on goods and merchandize, ships, freight, and bottomry loans. But there are certain articles, which, from motives of public policy, cannot be legally insured in this country, and others which can only be insured under particular restrictions. It will be the business of the present chapter to particularise these, and to show by what laws, and under what circumstances, the insurance of them is regulated or restrained. This may be done under the following heads, viz.

- ' 1. Smuggled goods;
- ' 2. Prohibited commerce with the British colonies;
- ' 3. Warlike stores sent to the enemy;
- ' 4. Goods bought of the enemy;
- ' 5. The wages and effects of the captain and sailors;
- ' 6. Freight;
- ' 7. Slaves;
- ' 8. Profit.' Vol. i. p. 48.

(*To be continued.*)

quelque éloignée qu'elle soit de nos mœurs; car l'impression que fait la vertu sur nous est si forte, que nous l'aimons jusques dans nos ennemis mêmes. (Ceci étoit écrit en 1781.)—*Tanta vis probitatis est, ut eam in hoste etiam, diligamus. Cic. de amicitia*, c. 9. Les juges en Angleterre ne croient pas, que se soit assez de bien faire; ils donnent les motifs de leur décision, afin qu'on sache qu'on est soumis à l'empire de la loi, plutôt qu'à l'autorité de l'homme. *Emerig. vol. 2. p. 67.*

ART. XI.—*Poems: By Francis Wrangham, M. A. &c. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Mawman. 1795.*

‘WITH regard to the following collection of poems,’ says the author, ‘I have little to premise. The greatest part of them were printed in the latter end of the year 1795, on which account that date is adopted in the title-page: but other, and (it is trusted) better employments have suspended their publication. The first, entitled “The Restoration of the Jews,” obtained the Seaton-prize in the University of Cambridge in 1794: the next, “The Destruction of Babylon,” was an unsuccessful candidate for it in the ensuing year.’
P. iii.

‘Of the smaller English compositions several, I fear, contain in themselves evidence, superseding my own confession, that they were written at an early age, and under the strong impulse of youthful feelings; feelings, which “in life’s rosy prime” find admission into every bosom, except such as are closed against them by less venial propensities.

‘E certo ogni mio studio in quel temp’ era,
Pur di sfogare il doloroso core
In qualche modo, non d’acquistar fama.’ P. vi.

Mr. Wrangham’s talents are already well known to the public by his former publications. The first poem in this little volume has been noticed on an earlier appearance of the author. The Destruction of Babylon, which follows, though offered unsuccessfully for the Seaton-prize, is of very superior merit to the generality of prize poems.

‘And art thou then for ever set! Thy ray
No more to rise and gild the front of day,
Far-beaming Babylon? Those massive gates,
Through which to battle rush’d a hundred states;
That cloud-topt wall, along whose giddy height
Cars strove with rival cars in fearless flight—
What! Could not all protect thee? Ah! In vain
Thy bulwarks frown’d defiance o’er the plain:
Fondly in ancient majesty elate
Thou sat’st, unconscious of impending fate:
Nor brazen gates, nor adamant wall,
Could save a guilty people from their fall.

‘Was it for this those wondrous turrets rose,
Which taught thy feeble youth a scorn of foes?
For this that earth her mineral stores resign’d;
And the wan artist, child of sorrow, pin’d:
Destin’d, as death crept on with mortal stealth,
And the flush’d hectic mimick’d rosy health;
Mid gasping crowds to ply the incessant loom,
While morbid vapours linger’d in the gloom?

‘ Silent for seventy years, its frame unstrung,
 On Syrian bough Judæa’s harp had hung :
 Deaf to their despots’ voice, her tribes no more
 Wak’d Sion’s music on a foreign shore ;
 But oft, his tide where broad Euphrates rolls,
 Felt the keen insult pierce their patriot souls :
 And still, as homeward turn’d the longing eye,
 Gush’d many a tear and issued many a sigh.
 Yet not for ever flows the fruitless grief !
 Cyrus and vengeance fly to their relief.’ P. 31.

These are spirited and manly lines. The poem proceeds with equal vigour.

‘ Now yield those Gods, whom prostrate realms ador’d :
 Though Gods, unequal to a mortal sword !
 In awless state th’ unworshipp’d idols stand,
 And tempt with sacred gold the plunderer’s hand.

‘ Now bend those groves, whose sloping bowers among
 The Attic warbler trill’d her changeful song :
 Their varied green where pensile gardens spread,
 And Median foliage lent its grateful shade :
 There oft, of courts and courtly splendour tir’d,
 The fragrant gale Assyria’s queen respir’d ;
 With blameless foot through glades exotic rov’d,
 And hail’d the scenes her happier prime had lov’d.

‘ Now stoops that tower, from whose broad top the eye
 Of infant science pierc’d the midnight sky ;
 First dar’d ’mid worlds before unknown to stray,
 Scann’d the bright wonders of the milky way ;
 And, as in endless round they whirl’d along,
 In groups arrang’d and nam’d the lucid throng :
 Nay, in their glittering aspects seem’d to spy
 The hidden page of human destiny !
 Vain all her study ! In that comet’s glare,
 Which shook destruction from its horrid hair,
 Of her sage train deep-vers’d in stellar law
 Not one his country’s hapless fate foresaw ;
 No heaven-read priest beheld the deepening gloom,
 Or with prophetic tongue foretold her doom.

‘ Vocal no more with pleasure’s sprightly lay
 Her fretted roofs shall Babylon display ;
 No more her nymphs in graceful band shall join,
 Or trace with fitting step the mazy line :
 But here shall Fancy heave the pensive sigh,
 And moral drops shall gather in her eye ;
 As ’mid her day-dreams distant ages rise,
 Glowing with nature’s many-colour’d dyes :
 Resound the rattling car, th’ innumerable feet,
 And all the tumult of the breathing street ;

The murmur of the busy, idle throng ;
 The flow of converse, and the charm of song :—
 Starting she wakes, and weeps as naught she sees
 Save trackless marshes and entangled trees :
 As naught she hears, save where the deathful brake
 Rustling betrays the terrors of the snake ;
 Save, of the casual traveller afraid,
 Where the owl screaming seeks a dunner shade ;
 Save where, as o'er th' unsteadfast fen she roves,
 The hollow bittern shakes th' encircling groves.' P. 42.

Was this piece unsuccessful because of its conclusion?

' And thou, Augusta, hear " in this thy day,"
 For once, like thee, lost Babylon was gay :
 With thee wealth's taint has seiz'd the vital part,
 As once with her, and gangrenes at the heart.
 Profusion, Avarice, flying hand in hand,
 Scatter prolific poisons o'er the land ;
 The teeming land with noxious life grows warm,
 And reptile mischiefs on its surface swarm :—
 Like hers, or deaf or faithless to the vow
 Of honest passion are thy daughters now :
 With well-feign'd flame th' obedient maidens wed,
 If wealth or birth adorn the venal bed ;
 Then—ere a second moon, more fix'd than they,
 With changing beam the jointur'd brides survey—
 Madly they fly where appetite inspires,
 Dart the unhallow'd glance and burn with real fires.

' Thy sons like hers, a fickle fluttering train,
 Th' illustrious honours of their name profane ;
 Stake half a province on the doubtful die,
 And mark the fatal cast without a sigh :
 Their heavier hours th' intemperate bowl beguiles,
 Wakes the dull blood and lights lascivious smiles ;
 Then in the stews they court th' impure embrace,
 Drink deep disease and mar the future race.

' Far other Britons antient Gallia view'd,
 When her dead chiefs the plains of Crecy strew'd ;
 Proud of such heroes, and by such rever'd,
 In that blest age far other dames appear'd :
 Blest age, return ; thy sternness soften'd down,
 Charm with our better features and thine own !
 Come ; but resign those glories of the field,
 The gleaming falchion and the storied shield :
 Renounce the towery menace of thy brow,
 Which frown'd despair on vassal crowds below ;
 And true to order, and of all the friend,
 To varied rank unvarying law extend.
 Ah ! In the snowy robe of Peace array'd,
 Led by the Virtues of the rural shade,

Return, and let advancing Time behold
Regenerate man, and other years of gold.

‘ Then shall no feuds our triple realm divide,
No traitor point the dagger at its side ;
But each with patriot toils his hours shall crown,
And in his country's welfare find his own.’ P. 45.

We wish Mr. Wrangham would condescend to ‘ walk over the course ’ annually for this prize, as poor Smart and poor Hayes did before him. Something would then be produced acceptable to the public and creditable to the university. The distressed authors, who find it difficult to sell poetry, should console themselves by reflecting that the rich have never been able to purchase it. It may be bought ready-made, indeed, at the booksellers’; but they who want a panegyric to fit, or a poem made to pattern, have never been able to bespeak one from the days of Alexander down to Mr. Seaton.

The smaller poems are few in number. We select two as remarkably elegant.

‘ *On leaving a favourite Residence.*

‘ ———, farewell ! And with thee too adieu,
Joys left as soon as tasted ! They are gone,
Even like some pleasant dream by hasty dawn
Scar'd from the lover's pillow : Fast they flew,

‘ And long will they be absent. I meanwhile
(Sooth'd by the memory of the white-arm'd maid,
With whom among thy moonlight scenes I stray'd)
With melancholy minstrelsy beguile

‘ The lonely hour. But me whate'er betide,
Whether on life's tempestuous ocean tost
Hopeless I view the still-retiring coast,
Or my frail bark propitious Tritons guide

‘ Through smiling seas—on her my prosperous fate,
With its long train of changeless raptures, wait!’ P. 100.

‘ *SONG.*

‘ In times so long past (though I still am but young)
That I scarcely their transports can trace,
Enraptur'd I caught the soft lisp of thy tongue ;
And totter'd—for then I but totter'd—along,
To clasp thee in childish embrace.

‘ As we grew up together, each day I beheld,
With feelings unkindled before,
Thy yesterday's beauties by new ones excell'd ;
Nor, boy as I was, from those beauties withheld
My heart :—Could I offer thee more ?

' Even now, when the fever of youth is gone by,
And I glow with more temperate fire,
Delighted I dwell on thy soul-beaming eye;
And, heaving perhaps still too ardent a sigh,
Survey thee with chasten'd desire.

' Oh ! come then and give me, dear Maiden, thy charms ;
For life is alas ! on the wing :
Our summer ere long will be fled ; in these arms
Let me shield thee, my fair one, from winter's alarms :
Oh ! listen to love, while 'tis spring.' P. 103.

Of his Latin verses Mr. Wrangham thus speaks.

' That there are two transgressions of *Terentianus*' canon, "*De elemento ἀπὸ τῆς Σ,*" in the translation of the prologue to Cato (p. 89. ll. 11, 14.) I am not ignorant ; nor do I fully know, whether I may adopt in their defence the apology made by Dawes in behalf of those writings of Horace, "*quæ sermoni propiora ipse est professus.*" To the charge likewise, of the "*infinitivum poeticum in versu elegiaco,*" p. 91. l. 5. (censured, as "*non absolutæ prorsus Latinitatis,*" by the editor of the last *Musa Etonenses*) I plead guilty.' P. iv.

Among these is an ode to a lady, more appropriate in its thoughts than in its language. A translation, however, or rather paraphrase, is annexed by Mr. Colexidge.

ART. XII.—*A Synopsis of the British Fuci.* By Dawson Turner, A.M. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 8s. 6d. common ; 10s. 6d. fine. Boards. White. 1802.

IN this era of splendid publications, particularly upon subjects of natural history, the modest unassuming appearance of these small volumes very early and forcibly struck our attention. Relying neither upon magnificence of size, splendid typography, nor elegant embellishments (though the printing and paper are highly creditable to the provincial press of North Yarmouth), it is only on their intrinsic merit which they can rest their claim to the notice and favour of the public. On this they may safely rest it, for a more thorough knowledge of the subject, or a more perspicuous method of communicating that knowledge, will very rarely be met with ; and they must consequently obtain a distinguished place on the shelves of every botanical library.

Although Mr. Turner has only entitled his work "*A SYNOPSIS OF BRITISH FUCI*," it is in reality a general history of these plants ; comprising not only full and accurate descriptions of each species, but also an account of whatever has been done by former writers to elucidate this obscure subject. Critical remarks upon their several works are added ; and though the au-

thor has, with great freedom, delivered his opinion, wherever he has thought differently from his predecessors, he has always given his reasons with so much modesty and candour, that even living authors cannot be offended at his criticisms. The principal objects of his attention are, the paper in the *Linnaean Transactions*, Vol. III, by Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward, and the *Nereis Britannica* of Mr. Stackhouse, lately noticed in our Review. The *Synopsis* may be considered as a perpetual commentary on those works, though it is by no means to those only that the observations are confined. The extensive work of the German professor ESPEY is particularly noticed; and almost every author, British or foreign, occasionally examined, and their merits or faults pointed out.

The introduction contains a general account of the subject; to which are added many curious observations on the physiology of the *marine alga*. The whole is so excellent, that we should be glad to insert it entire, but that it would swell this article to an extent which would be inconsistent with our other engagements. We shall therefore select an extract from the beginning, which gives an account of the design of the author, and the manner in which its execution has been conducted, referring the botanical reader to the work itself for the remainder, which he will find equally, or perhaps more, interesting than the part which we quote, but which would not so readily allow of separation.

‘ Before I enter upon the task of describing the several species of Fuci, it cannot be amiss to offer some slight remarks upon the peculiarities connected with the physiology of these curious vegetables. In doing this, I shall confine myself as far as possible to recording facts which have fallen under my own observation; and shall carefully abstain from indulging in speculative opinions, under the full conviction that we are at present too little acquainted with them to fix any thing which may stand the test of future investigation, or be likely to meet the concurrence of succeeding botanists. I must be allowed also to say a few words upon the subject of the present undertaking, which was at first intended to have been little more than a republication of Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward’s excellent paper in the third volume of the *Linnaean Society*; but which it afterwards appeared best to write entirely anew, following indeed, in great measure, the plan laid down by those gentlemen, and in many instances availing myself of their knowledge; yet no where, I trust, at least no where designedly, without acknowledging my obligations to them on the subject. The difficulties that attend the attempt to elucidate any branch whatever of natural history are so well known, that to enlarge upon them would be idle and superfluous: but it must be evident that among the Fuci these difficulties prevail to a far greater extent than can be the case in the vegetables which we cultivate in our gardens, or may see daily in the fields; and if the writers who have treated even upon the most common

phænogamous plants have differed in their opinions, and been under the necessity of soliciting the indulgence of their readers for those errors,

— quos aut incuria fudit,
Aut humana parum cavit natura,

such an apology can hardly fail of being infinitely more necessary from one who attempts to describe the species of a tribe, where, to the obstacles that attend upon all the orders of the class Cryptogamia, are added many more of a peculiar nature, arising from the element they inhabit, the difficulty of approaching them, and other circumstances. Longer delay, and less interrupted leisure, might undoubtedly have produced a more perfect work; but were perfection an idea which on this subject ever once entered my mind, I have no hesitation in declaring that this book would certainly not have appeared for many years, most probably not at all. My aim is far more humble. Since the publication of the *Flora Anglica*, *Flora Scotica*, and *Botanical Arrangements*, nay even since that of the *Observations on the British Fuci*, some new species have been ascertained, and many not unimportant discoveries made: these, partly contained in Mr. Stackhouse's *Nereis Britannica*, partly scattered through other works, and partly never yet printed, it is my object here to collect into one body, and, by comprising them in a small compass, to record what is already known; and to present, I trust, no unacceptable companion to those botanists who, in their residence near the sea, wish for some assistance in the investigation of its productions. Another motive for the undertaking was, that no complete work, exclusively appropriated to the British Fuci, has been at present published. The only attempt of the kind was made by my friend Mr. Stackhouse, and even he has declined figuring or describing those species of which plates had been given by any preceding English author. On this account, also, I flatter myself I shall escape the imputation of having obtruded upon the public an altogether useless or unnecessary production. I have written it in my native tongue, because, from its nature, it has little chance of ever extending beyond the boundaries of this island; and because many of those, into whose hands it is likely to fall, may possibly on that account find it somewhat more convenient: had its subject been more general, I should undoubtedly have preferred composing it in Latin; and, if, as I sincerely hope, my opportunities and leisure should allow me at some future period to undertake the bolder task of publishing an history of all the Fuci hitherto known, there will be no longer reason to complain of the language in which the present volumes now make their appearance. With regard to those points in which I have differed in opinion from the gentlemen who have preceded me, I must call upon the candour of my readers not to impute these differences to either vanity or a love of singularity. Where I have seen mistakes, I have of course either noticed, or at least avoided them; to have done otherwise, would not have been discharging my duty either to myself or the public; but I trust I have in all cases expressed myself with that diffidence which an earnest zeal for the promotion of science cannot fail to inspire; and wherever I am myself mistaken, I shall

feel certainly under obligations to any botanist who will take the trouble of convincing me of my errors. With regard to figures, I have given none; not only on account of the additional expense necessarily attendant upon engravings, but also because English Botany will in time comprise plates of every species; and, still more, because I was unwilling to do any thing which might make this work appear of more consequence than I really considered it myself. In point of references, I feel that I have been, from my situation in the country, under the necessity of omitting some, which a residence in the metropolis, and access to Sir Joseph Banks' splendid library, would have enabled me to introduce. This is particularly the case respecting the Fuci of the Flora Norvegica, many of which an opportunity of consulting Bishop Gunner's figures in the *Acta Nordroensia* might possibly have enabled me to clear up; and I have regretted it the more, as the author of that work was unquestionably an excellent observer; and in the first volume, where he trusted chiefly to his own remarks, has thrown considerable light upon them. In the second, which was not published till some time after, he seems to have aimed only at collecting a quantity of species, and hence has greatly copied what other authors had written, more than once introducing the same plan under different appellations.' Vol. i. p. iii.

The two following short passages contain such curious facts respecting the physiology of the *algæ*, that we cannot withhold them from our readers.

'One of the most remarkable circumstances attending the physiology of the Fuci is the extreme rapidity of their growth and decay; a singular instance of which I had an opportunity of observing when, in July 1798, I visited the rocks at Cromer, and found them almost exclusively covered with *Ulva filiformis*, Hudson, of which, in the following September, not a trace remained: but this, if we consider the gelatinous substance of the plant, is not perhaps wonderful. *Ulva plumosa* and *fistulosa*, together with *F. filum*, *dasyphyllus*, and *confervoides*, had then occupied its place, some whereof being at that time new to me, I returned about two months afterwards to procure a fresh supply, when, of them all, nothing but a few broken pieces of the last remained to prove their ever having existed; and they had been succeeded by *F. vesiculosus* and *Ulva umbilicalis*. Mr. Dillwyn, during his residence at Dover, observed several instances of the same nature; and the fresh-water *Confervæ* partake of this fugitive quality; for often, where I have known ditches filled with particular species, I have returned after a short interval, and found not even a vestige of them left.' Vol. i. p. xviii.

'Another remarkable circumstance attending the Fuci, for which it is not easy to account on philosophical principles, is the great diversity of species produced by different places, even though but little removed from each other. Among phænogamous plants we know that *Malvæ*, *Urticæ*, *Lamia*, the more common grasses, &c. are predominant in almost every part of our island; but the same is far from being the case in the submersed *Algæ*; for of those which

are abundant at Yarmouth, some have never been found at Scarborough, others never at Dover; and those shores in return produce a different tribe, whereof many have not at present been discovered in Norfolk. To carry this observation a little farther, I may add that the same holds good in the Isle of Wight, Weymouth, and Cornwall; and even those individuals that are common to several parts of our island appear in distant places under such various forms; that the collecting them is almost equally interesting as if they were distinct species. Some not only flourish most on, but seem peculiar to, chalk; some to sand-stone; some to hard, siliceous rocks: a remarkable instance whereof is afforded by Sherringham, a small village on the Norfolk coast, which though not more than four miles distant from Cromer, yet from its soil being quite different, produces different Fuci. This also seems to shew that the root of these plants is not without its use as an organ of nutrition. The size and texture of some species appear to be considerably influenced by the latitude in which they grow: thus *plumosus* is a stiff, cartilaginous plant in Scotland, but tender and flaccid as a *Conserva* at Dover; *pinnatifidus*, on the other hand, is small in Norfolk; but reaches a comparatively gigantic stature in the Mediterranean; and numberless other instances of the same nature might easily be adduced. They are also affected by their situation near fresh water; and, at the mouths of great rivers, often attain to an unusual size. Vol. i. p. xxii.

The introduction is followed by a *Synopsis specierum*, and that by the detailed accounts of the several species. In treating of these, the author first gives, as is usual, the specific character, of which the greater part are new; then the synonyms and references to figures, in both of which he has been sparing, rarely quoting any but such as he could absolutely depend upon; and where he has departed from this rule, the reference is always accompanied by a mark of doubt. The description of the plant follows, with general observations upon it; and in this part much curious matter is introduced; the particular points in which it differs from those of its congeners, with which it is in any hazard of being confounded, are carefully pointed out; every thing curious in its physiology is detailed; and critical observations on former writers are introduced. To these are finally added the places of growth, and the duration, when it can with any probability be ascertained.

It now remains for us to give specimens from this part of the work, which we shall select from such species as are now first described, or have only been published in the *Transactions of the Linnean Society*.

41.—FUCUS NORVEGICUS.

F. fronde cartilaginea dichotoma; ramis linearibus integris, apice rotundatis: tuberculis hemisphaericis disco insidentibus.

Fl. Norv. ii. p. 122. t. 3. f. 4.

Fucus crenulatus β .—Linn. Trans. vi. p.

At Dover, Mr. Dillwyn.

Perennial?—August—September.

H. 3

'Root a thin, expanded disk, common to numerous fronds, from three to six inches high; which rise at first with very short, cylindrical stems, hardly thicker than large thread, generally simple, but sometimes bifid; at the distance of two or three lines from the root becoming compressed, and gradually losing themselves in flat branches, about two lines wide, of the same substance throughout, smooth, altogether destitute of any appearance of either midrib or veins, repeatedly dichotomous at irregular distances with roundish angles, quite linear, and having their margins perfectly entire. The extremities are bifid, with segments between patent and divaricated; their apices blunt and rounded. The fructification consists of hemispherical tubercles, about the size of turnip-seeds, plentifully scattered over either surface of the upper branches; at first of a dark colour, and apparently covered with the epidermis, through which they, in maturity, seem to exude, and adhere to the outside of the frond, in the form of small, whitish, or flesh-coloured warts, full of very minute seeds. This plant is never prolific; its habit is much twisted in a sub-spiral manner; its substance is cartilaginous, and in the older branches inclining to coriaceous; its colour a deep, rich; brownish red, sometimes tinged with crimson; and a fine pale pink in the young shoots; if kept in fresh water it turns to a dull dirty yellow.' Vol. ii. p. 222.

To this we shall add a new species, the trivial name of which is given in honour of a person who has been a very able as well as indefatigable assistant to the author in his researches. His great knowledge and discernment in general botany—more particularly in this branch of it—demand that his name should be rescued from that obscurity in which it has hitherto been involved.

'68.—FUCUS WIGGHII.

- *F. fronde filiformi sub-gelatinosâ ramosissimâ; ramulis setaceis sub-simplicibus sparsis apice capsuliferis; capsulis lanceolatis mucronatis.*—Linn. Trans. vi. t. 11.

Among the rejectamenta of the sea at Yarmouth.

Annual—July.

'Root a minute, blackish callus; frond cylindrical, filiform, about the thickness of packthread; from three to six inches high, divided, immediately adjoining its base, into branches of considerable but uncertain lengths, which are again beset with others, arranged in general alternately, though by no means certainly so, and giving the frond, in some measure, a pinnated appearance. All these, the large as well as small, are clothed with minute setæ, or ramuli, scattered without order at short intervals from each other; in general about a line long, and simple; sometimes, however, once or even twice forked; and so much elongated as to appear as if they would in time become new branches. These setæ perform the office of peduncles, and support at their apices lanceolate or ovato-lanceolate pods, terminated by a sharp point, and too small to be easily visible to the naked eye, but, under the microscope, evidently full of seeds. The substance is between cartilaginous and gelatinous, extremely tender; the colour a very pale, sub-diaphanous rose-red.' Vol. ii. p. 362.

After what has been said, no further recommendation of the *Synopsis* can be necessary; and we shall conclude with earnestly exhorting the author to pursue his researches, and to favour the botanical world with the general history of Fuci, foreign as well as British. He hints a design of this kind in the present work, and we trust that the execution will not be delayed.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

RELIGION.

ART. 13.—*A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Rochester, in the Year 1802; and published at their Request. By John Law, D. D. &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Payne. 1802.*

THE worthy dignitary who delivered this charge has presided at not less than thirty visitations; and the sentiments here expressed are in general worthy of his years and his office: some few points, indeed, seem to require a little more discussion and consideration; on the part of both his auditors and readers; or the doctor's authority and influence may occasion some unnecessary and improper ebullitions of zeal.

'It is a fact too well known, that books of infidelity are still actively dispersed in this country; the design of which it is incumbent on every believer in the word of God resolutely to oppose, not only by argument—for many will not listen to the cool suggestions of reason—but by stopping the circulation of the poison in the very first instance, and by exposing those, both to public justice and to public infamy, who labour to deprive mankind of the surest source of comfort, and the best means of securing the quiet and happiness of the community.' P. 7.

Now we read of the early Christians having brought improper books of their own, and thrown them into the fire; but we do not find any recommendation given by Christ or his apostles, to employ temporal coercion against those who circulate such writings. If this conduct were strictly adopted, and the civil magistrate would allow it, there is no defining its consequences. We might be soon harassed with the introduction of an *index expurgatorius*; and under pretext of destroying infidelity, all free discussion might be gradually abolished. What book can contain more of the poison of infidelity; and in its worst form, than Mr. Gibbon's 'Decline

and Fall of the Roman Empire?' Yet the true way to prevent the baneful effects which such a work may produce, is not to suppress it, or to expose its venders to public justice and public infamy, but to demonstrate the errors of the writer, and from his own work to prove, that the very conduct of Christians which he exposes ought to be exposed, because inconsistent with Christian charity, and the truths of the Gospel they professed.

On the charge advanced by the evangelical clergy against their brethren who keep themselves more directly within the pale, the following is a just observation.

'The charges indeed of insincerity, and of abandoning doctrines which we have solemnly undertaken to preach, we naturally wish to repel; because a silent acquiescence under them may be represented as an acknowledgment of their truth. We beg therefore to assure our accusers, that we require no other latitude of interpretation in explaining the Articles of our church than what may be warranted by considering them as articles of peace, comprehensive in their nature, and in any mysterious point of doctrine to be received "in such wise as that doctrine is generally set forth to us in Holy Scripture." History informs us, that in the original compilation of this work there was a diversity of opinion on some of those points which are still agitated among the believers in the revealed will of God. And, when the contender for justification by faith alone shelters himself under the article drawn up expressly on this very subject, we entreat him to extend his search to the article that immediately follows, wherein he will find that "good works are termed the natural, nay the necessary effects of a true and lively faith." P. 12.

The phrase 'articles of peace' is liable to some exception. They are articles of peace, inasmuch only as they settle differences in religious opinions, by authoritatively prescribing bounds to every opinion on which they treat; and their subscribers must necessarily be at peace with each other, because no one is justified in swerving from the plain and obvious doctrine laid down in any one of them. If, indeed, two opposite opinions be held by any parties upon the same article, there cannot be peace between those parties, because both opinions cannot be right, and one of the parties must necessarily lie under the censures of the church.

But, if we might wish that the worthy author had been a little more cautious on the one point, and explicit on the other, we cannot too much commend the general style of his admonitions to the clergy. He notices, with great propriety, the interference of the legislature to rescue them from vexatious prosecutions, as a proof of the estimation in which the order is held. He assures them, that 'the clergy have never wanted advocates: while they have shown themselves patterns of good works, and in doctrines have testified uncorruptness, gravity, sincerity.'

'If we are resident ourselves in our respective cures, and diligently perform our own duty; or, in cases of allowed absence from them, secure the assistance of diligent and faithful ministers; we shall then defeat, in a great measure, the attempts to lessen our

authority. Such an effect may not always be seen in extensive towns, composed of a great variety of men of divers habits and dispositions, and who may be inclined, like the Athenians of old, to "spend their time principally in telling or hearing some new thing." But in the retirement of a country village, the impression of extraneous and unauthorised teachers will be feeble, where there is a minister "of good behaviour, apt to teach," and conciliating in his manners.' P. 14.

ART. 14.—*A Layman's Account of his Faith and Practice, as a Member of the Episcopal Church in Scotland: published with the Approbation of the Bishops of that Church. To which are added, some Forms of Prayer, from the most approved Manuals, for assisting the Devotion of private Christians on various Occasions. With a Letter from the Reverend Charles Daubeny to a Scotch Nobleman, on the Subject of Ecclesiastical Unity. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Moir, Edinburgh. 1801.*

A vindication of the episcopalian dissenters in Scotland, written with great temperance and moderation. The arguments are, however, many of them, of such a nature, that if, instead of a member of the church of Scotland, and the episcopalian dissenter from it, we put them into the mouths of a protestant and a papist, the protestant must be made to acknowledge himself in error, by departing from popery. The writer falls into the vulgar mistake of considering the bishop, priest, and deacon, as corresponding with the high priest, the priests, and Levites under the Mosaic law, forgetting that there could be only one high priest at the head of the Levitical church at the same time; and if such a high priest were necessary to the Christian church, the pope might put in, and not without some strong arguments in his favour, a claim to this pretended superiority: but the fact is, that the terms bishop, presbyter, and deacon, have no analogy whatsoever with the Levitical offices; for they are borrowed from the synagogue worship of the Jews—the bishop being the overseer or president of the synagogue; the presbyters the committee of elders, as his council; the deacons the officers under their appointment, for the management of their concerns, as the distribution of bread, and the like. Hence in the Christian church, we read of many bishops; and the bishops of the first century will be found to correspond entirely to this description.

ART. 15.—*The Amen to Social Prayer illustrated and improved. A Sermon preached in Mr. Button's Meeting-House, Dean-Street, Southwark, at the Baptist Monthly Meeting, Nov. 20, 1800. By Abraham Booth. 8vo. 1s. Button and Son.*

The text prefixed to this discourse is contained in four verses of St. Matthew's Gospel, of which the last word is Amen—a word frequently used, and with great propriety, in the church of England, but very seldom uttered in congregations similar to that of which the writer is minister. This word—Amen—however is the theme of the discourse, to the almost entire exclusion of every thing which preceded it in the text: but the preacher is not to be rigidly

condemned, since he had not the liberty, it seems, of choosing his own text, which was assigned to him by others, probably with a view of trying the strength of his abilities, as was the custom with the sophists of old, on any question that was likely to be attended with difficulty. Indeed, the whole sermon reminds us of those ancient exercises; though the preacher is content with very inferior attempts at eloquence, as may be seen by the following specimen.

‘When persons come into a worshipping assembly after prayer is begun, they are not only rendered incapable of saying *Amen*, to the preceding petitions; but they interrupt the devotion of others. This they do, not merely by the opening of doors, passing the aisles, and entering the pews; the noise of all which is often increased by the clatter of pattens; but, sometimes, when taking their seats, by paying a kind of profane respect one to another in the same pew. I said, a kind of profane respect: nor can I give it a milder epithet. Because, to suspend, though but for a moment, an act of devotion to God, rather than omit a token of politeness, or an expression of esteem, to a fellow-worm; is incomparably more absurd and indecent, than for a condemned felon, when begging his life at the feet of his sovereign, to discontinue his interesting supplication, while he takes the opportunity of caressing a lap-dog.’ p. 33.

ART. 16.—*Methodism unmasked, or the Progress of Puritanism, from the Sixteenth to the Nineteenth Century: intended as an Explanatory Supplement to “Hints to Heads of Families.”* By the Rev. T. E. Owen, A.B. &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.

If this pamphlet were likely to be read, it might in an ignorant age produce very pernicious effects. All the nonsense and trash of the abbé Barruel and professor Robison are made to bear upon the methodists and the dissenters. Even ‘the attacks recently made upon public schools,’ though known to have come from men of high rank in the church, and as far as possible from puritanical principles, are supposed to be of the same leaven. From one curious fact, the spirit of the writer may be discerned. A dissenting minister was accused of a crime, brought to the bar of the Old-Bailey, and acquitted. The next Sunday he preached before a congregation of dissenters; and the writer has the assurance to ask, ‘Can any person dare to say that this was not flying in the face of government most audaciously?’ This insinuation against government and the dissenters is most outrageous. What! will this divine dare to say that government is displeased at a subject being found innocent? Will he dare to say that government wishes for the death of its subjects? But that a dissenting minister should be tried for an offence, is a sufficient charge against his sect, though he was acquitted. The author forgets, that for the same offence a very orthodox clergyman of the church of England was tried and condemned to be hanged: yet no one is fool enough, on this account, to allege any thing against the orthodoxy or loyalty of the church of England.

ART. 17.—*Sermons by the late Reverend Thomas Hebbes, A. M. &c.*
8vo. White. 1802.

These Sermons were not intended for publication by the author, whose widow enjoyed a pension from the late princess Amelia, which ceased at her royal highnesses death. They are plain and practical discourses; and the well-disposed have, by purchasing them, a good opportunity of contributing to the benefit of the author's widow, and of showing their respect for the memory of himself; an opportunity, of which we hope the younger clergy will avail themselves.

ART. 18.—*Christian Zeal, A Sermon, preached at the Scots Church, London-Wall, May 30th, 1802, before the Correspondent Board in London, of the Society in Scotland, (incorporated by Royal Charter) for propagating Christian Knowledge in the Highlands and Islands. By Joseph Hughes, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Williams. 1802.

The objects, characteristics, recommendations, and field of exercise and zeal of the institution referred to, form the main subject of this discourse; into which is introduced a panegyric upon a minister, who, as a preacher, a tutor, and a writer, is certainly deserving of high commendation. We were for a long time wondering who this gentleman could be, when the preacher was at last kind enough to give us the name of Doddridge; and, after this long episode, entertained us with nearly a score of verses, whose introduction seemed just as ill suited to the discourse as the panegyric. We highly commend the institution, for the benefit of which this sermon was preached; and are concerned to find that the salary of the schoolmaster is upon an average under thirteen pounds. Surely, if this were made known sufficiently to the nobility, and the rich merchants of Scotland, they would speedily advance it to at least thirty pounds.

ART. 19.—*A Manual of Religious Knowledge; for the Use of Sunday Schools, and of the Poor in General.* 8vo. No Publisher's name. Ormskirk. 1801.

By way of inspiring young children with a love of devotion and prayer, the business of the Sunday-school at Ormskirk 'begins and concludes with the repetition of prayer, by scholars called up without order, and unexpectedly; the smallest hesitation being punished as an evidence of the want of regular devotion.' This method is recommended to other committees; but we cannot join in the recommendation; as punishing, for not saying a prayer, must make the child think prayer rather a task than a privilege. Beggars, we know, beat their children if they do not whine and cant as they are taught; and of course the children learn a peculiar mode of recitative. We hope, however, that the children of Ormskirk will not be taught to acquire such a recitative, nor in the same way, which may make them set little value on prayer in future life. The book labours under two defects—the one of being very ill printed, and the other, of containing too much matter for young persons. The attempt of putting a great deal into a small compass is injurious to the eyes of learners, and discourages them very

much in their progress. Large margins and a large print are best adapted for the poor, to whose lot unhappily fall bad print and small margins.

ART. 20.—*An English Harmony of the four Evangelists, generally disposed after the Manner of the Greek of William Newcome, Archbishop of Armagh; with a Map of Palestine, divided according to the twelve Tribes, Explanatory Notes, and Indexes.* 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Phillips. 1802.

The uses of an harmony are well known, both to the learned and to Christians in general. The Greek of archbishop Newcome is here followed with the vulgar English version, divided in the same improper manner into verses. Whatever reason there might have been for such division of the Testament originally, we can see none for retaining it in a publication like the present, especially as all its supposed advantages would have been equally well preserved by figures on the margin, and an asterisk, or smaller mark, to denote the termination of the verse. It appears rather strange, moreover, that, when so many improvements and corrections have been made, both in translating the original, and from the collection of manuscripts, the vulgar version should have been uniformly retained, and scarcely any notice taken of the labours of so many learned bibliasts. Some very useful notes are added at the bottom of the page, to ascertain the time and place in which, and where, any transaction recorded in the text is supposed to have occurred; but the chief illustrations are reserved for the end of the volume; where many judicious extracts appear from a variety of authors. The whole of these illustrations we should, however, have preferred at the bottom of the page, along with the running notes. In its present form, nevertheless, this work may be used with great advantage; although it is obvious, from what we have already observed upon it, that there is room for great improvement; and he who will devote his time to an harmony taken from the Greek of Griesbach, correcting the vulgar translation in those instances only in which it deviates in sense from the original, and adding such notes at the bottom of the page as may illustrate the text, will perform a very beneficial service to the public.

EDUCATION.

ART. 21.—*El Tesoro Espanol, ó Biblioteca portátil Espanola; que Contiene Extractos Escogidos de los mas Célebres Escritores Espanoles, con Notas, para la Ilustracion y mayor Claridad de las Voces y Sentencias que hubieran producido alguna Dificultad.* Por Don A. L. Josse. 4 vols. 8vo. 1l. 8s. sewed. Dulau & Co. 1802.

This compilation is formed upon the plan of our *Elegant Extracts*, It would have been more useful, if it had contained biographical notices, and if all translations had been excluded. There is an absurdity in including passages from Rousseau, Caraccioli, and Ossian, under such a title. The selections in the prose volumes are from Luis de Granada, Fejoo, O Feliz Independente of Almeida, (which M. Josse does not mention as a Portuguese work), Lorenzô

Gracian, an author deservedly neglected and despised, Quevedo, Cervantes, Solis, Isla, with certain academical orators that are not likely to obtain any applause out of the Academy. There is nothing from Mendoza, nothing from Montemayor, nothing from the old romances, nothing from the old *novelas*; and though the editor admits translations from the Portuguese, nothing from Vieira, not even though that wonderful man sometimes wrote in Castilian; and though *El Tesoro Espanol* might have contained Portuguese extracts, *El Tesoro Castellano* should have been the exclusive title.

In the poetical part, the Fables of Yriarte are included, admirable productions which well deserve translation. Copious extracts are also given from the Araucana, and from the *Austriada*, a poem, which M. Josse seems to think deserving of praise, because Cervantes praised it. Too much is given from the modern writers and from prize poems; too little from the earlier and better poets; from the Argensolas, from Francisco de Rioja, from Quevedo, &c. Not one ballad occurs in the collection—an unaccountable and unpardonable omission. We suspect that the selection has been made from a scanty library; yet such as it is, it will be found useful in this country, where Spanish books are so scarce.

ART. 22.—*The Manuscripts of Virtudeo, published for the Amusement and Improvement of Young Persons: To which are subjoined, Thoughts on Education, addressed to Parents. By Eliza Andrews. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Hatchard. 1801.*

The manuscripts of *Virtudeo* will, in general, be perused with much advantage by young persons; for they are warm advocates in the cause of virtue: but we wonder much at the admission of so illiberal a paper as manuscript IV. amongst them. The *Thoughts on Education* are sometimes just, sometimes not. The idea of making religion the basis of it is a most important one, and is very earnestly and properly insisted on, as well as the propriety of establishing virtuous principles by habit. The author, however, has not convinced us, that the study of music and drawing is not as useful for a female as that of the Persian, Grecian, and Roman history. The daughters of persons in the lower conditions of life have enough to learn of a different nature from either. But the designs, set to be copied by young women of greater pretensions, must be bad indeed, as well as the songs they are taught to sing, before they can be called less innocent than the murders, incests, adulteries, and numberless other impurities, with which those histories, from beginning to end, so copiously abound.

ART. 23.—*Astronomical and Geographical Lessons; being an Introduction to the Use of the Globes; with a Variety of Problems and Examples. For the Use of Schools. By James Levett. 8vo. Badcock.*

This work is written in questions and answers. The words are not well selected; they are much too difficult for learners. The second answer can afford little satisfaction. The learner is asked, why one globe is called celestial and the other terrestrial? to which the reply is, Because the celestial globe represents the heavens,

with the situation of the fixed stars; and the terrestrial globe represents the earth, with its several lands, seas, islands, &c.

ART. 24.—*Bible Stories. Memorable Acts of the ancient Patriarchs, Judges and Kings: extracted from their original Historians. For the Use of Children. By William Scolfield. 2 Vols. 18mo. 4s. Bound. Philips. 1802.*

A well managed little selection for the use of children; delivered in nearly the same words as employed by the sacred historians.

ART. 25.—*Features of the Youthful Mind; or, Tales for Juvenile Readers. By Anne Stone. 8vo. 2s. Harris. 1802.*

This volume is calculated, as the author intends it, for the amusement of children.

ART. 26.—*Philario and Clarinda. A Warning to Youth, against Scepticism, Infidelity, and Vice. By the late Rev. John Thorowgood. 8vo. 3s. Conder. 1802.*

We think this book has been rather appreciated by the esteem which the readers of the manuscript had for the author, than by any intrinsic value in the performance. It is indeed intended well in the cause of religion, truth, and constancy; but the treachery of Philario may be found more forcibly depicted in an hundred other volumes of lighter novels, published in the language of our own and every other nation in Europe.

POETRY.

ART. 27.—*Saint Peter's Denial of Christ: a Scatonian Prize Poem. By the Rev. William Cockburn, M. A. &c. 4to. 2s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

Mr. Cockburn, we suspect, had no competitor; or surely such lines as these could never have won the prize.

' Oh! gracious Saviour! Ill-requited Lamb!
When from thy throne of bright præminence
Disrob'd of deity, thou didst condescend
To visit man, as man, how amiable,
How sweet a pattern didst thou give this world
Of mildest mercy, "unexampled love,
Love no where to be found less than divine;"
Exalted now at the right hand of God
Thou sitt'st encircled with the dazzling blaze
Of his unfading glory, beaming forth
Divinity unclouded, chosen by him
The future judge of man: whence joy to us
And hope unspeakable; with loud acclaim
Let then the earth its grateful voice upraise
To join the heavenly choir, that constant sing
Harmonious praise, to the everlasting God
Hosannas high—Thanks be to thee, O Son!
Who out of love to man for man became

The sacrifice—to thee, O Father! thanks
 For all thy bounties, but over all for this
 That from thy bosom thou didst give thy Son
 To bear the heavy burden of our sins,
 And still in mercy hast appointed him
 To be our judge all merciful—to him,
 To thee, and to the ever-blessed Spirit
 Who gave to man the knowledge excellent
 Of all thine excellence—To the Triad, One,
 Incomprehensible, immortal God
 Be glory infinite, eternal praise,
 As was, and is, and shall be evermore.’ p 18.

On referring to the clause of Mr. Seaton’s will, we perceive that the rents of the Kislingbury estate were to be given to the successful composer of poem, ode, or *copy of verses*. Mr. Cockburn should have chosen the last denomination for his performance; to call it a poem, is like *Lucus a non lucendo*.

ART. 28.—*Broad Grins; by George Colman, (the Younger;) comprising, with new additional Tales in Verse, those formerly published under the Title of ‘My Night-Gown and Slippers.’ 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

Mr. Colman’s peculiar manner appears in his advertisement.

‘My booksellers informed me, lately, that several inquiries had been made for my *Night-Gown and Slippers*,—but that every copy had been sold:—they had been out of print these two years.—“Then publish them again,” said I, boldly,—(I print at my own risk)—and with an air of triumph. Messrs. Cadell and Davies advised me to make additions.—“The work is, really, too short,”—said Messrs. Cadell and Davies.—“I wish, gentlemen,” returned I, “my readers were of your opinion.” “I protest, sir,” said they, (and they asserted it, both together, with great emphasis,) “you have but Three Tales.”—I told them, carelessly, it was enough for the greatest bashaw, among modern poets, and wished them a good morning. When a man, as Sterne observes, “can extricate himself with an *equivoque*, in such an unequal match,”—(and two booksellers to one poet are tremendous odds)—“he is not ill off;”—but reflecting a little, as I went home, I began to think my pun was a vile one,—and did not assist me, one jot, in my argument;—and, now I have put it upon paper, it appears viler still;—it is execrable.—So, without much further reasoning, I sat down to rhyming;—rhyming, as the reader will see, in open defiance of all reason,—except the reasons of Messrs. Cadell and Davies.’ p. v.

The additional tales are two: the first taken from the *Fabliaux*, edited by Le Grand, but so narrated as to have all the merit of originality. We extract a principal incident from this story.

‘Snug, in an English garden’s shadiest spot,
 A structure stands, and welcomes many a breeze;
 Lonely, and simple as a ploughman’s cot,
 Where monarchs may unbend, who wish for ease.

* There sit philosophers ; and sitting read ;
And to some end apply the dullest pages ;
And pity the barbarians, north of Tweed,
Who scout these fabricks of the southern sages.

* Sure, for an edifice in estimation,
Never was any less presuming seen !
It shrinks, so modestly, from observation !
And hides behind all sorts of evergreen ;—
Like a coy maid, design'd for filthy man,
Peeping, at his approach, behind her fan.

* Into this place, unnoticed by beholders,
The duke of Limbs, most circumspectly, stole,
And shot the friar off his shoulders,
Just like a sack of round Newcastle coal :

* Not taking any pains,
Nor caring, in the least,
How he deposited the friar's remains,
No more than if a friar were a beast.

* No funeral, of which you ever heard,
Was mark'd with ceremonies half so slight ;
For John was left, not like the dead interr'd,
But like the living, sitting bolt upright !

* Has no shrewd reader, of one sex or t'other,
Recurring to the facts, already stated,
Thought on a certain Roger ?—that same brother,
Who hated John, and whom John hated ?

* 'Tis, now, a necessary thing to say
That, at this juncture, Roger wasn't well ;
Poor Man ! he had been rubbing, all the day,
His stomach with coarse towels ;
And clapping trenchers, hot as hell,
Upon his bowels ;
Where spasms were kicking up a furious frolick,
Afflicting him with mulligaubs, and colick.

* He, also, had laboured, to sooth his pains,
Of pultrinae very many grains ;
And to the garden's doleful shade he was bent,
To give, quite privily, his sorrows vent :

* When, there,—alive and merry to appearance—
He fell, and lay, and rest took, by the moon's light !—
Who sat there, with so much perseverance,
It look'd as if he kept his post in spite.

* A case it is of piteous distress
If, carrying a secret grief about,
We wish to bury it in a recess,
And find another there, who keeps us out.

- ' Expecting, soon, his enemy to go,
 Roger, at first, walked to and fro,
 With tolerably tranquil paces ;
 But finding John determined to remain,
 Roger, each time he pass'd, thro' spite, or pain,
 Made, at his adversary, hideous faces.
- ' How misery will lower human pride !
 And make us buckle !—
 Roger, who, all his life, had John defied,
 Was now obliged to speak him fair,—and truckle.
- " Behold me," Roger cried, " behold me, John !
 Intreating as a favour you'll be gone ;
 Me ! your sworn foe, tho' fellow-lodger ;
 Me !—who, in agony, though suing now to you,
 Would, once, have seen you damn'd ere make a bow to you,
 Me—Roger !"
- ' To this address, so fraught with the pathetick,
 John remain'd dumb, as a Pythagorean ;
 Seeming to hint, " Roger, you're a plebeian
 Peripatetick."
- ' When such choice oratory has not hit,
 When it is, e'en, unanswer'd by a grunt,
 'Twould justify tame Job to curse a bit,
 And set an angler swearing in his punt.
- ' Cholerick Roger could not brook it ;—
 So seeing a huge brick-bat, up he took it ;
 And aiming, like a marksman at a crow,
 Plump on the breast he hit his deadly foe ;
 Who fell, like pedants' periods, to the ground,—
 Very inanimate, and very round.' P. 82.

This is Peter Pindar's style, with a more than common portion of his wit. We wish the faults of the same writer were not also to be found. It is strange that a man of such talents should introduce a note only for its obscenity !

ART. 29.—*Variety: a Collection of Original Poems. By a Lady.*
 8vo. 4s. Boards. Wallis. 1802.

We can adjudge no praise to these productions. What will our readers think to see a passage of Ossian thus versified from a French version ?

- ' The flower when cut down in its prime, as it dies,
 Seems to say to the Zephyrs that round its form play,
 In vain would ye raise me, for life swiftly flies,
 My strength and my beauty untimely decay ;
 I droop, am forlorn ;
 Not the smiles of the morn
 Can my charms e'er restore, health awaken again.
 In the noon-tide of life, in my bloom, I decline ;
 The tears of the sky on my head shower in vain,
 Nain the dews all their sweets in my bosom resign.

' The night quick approaches, the storm gathers round,
The breath of a pestilence hated
Disperses the plants which in friendship surround,
And the fairer each flower, the worse sated.

Vain for me smiles the morn,
I droop, am forlorn:
The traveller who saw me of late on the plain,
Who Heaven oft for me would implore,
With rapturous hope, to review me again,
Shall return . . . Shall return, to behold me no more.' P. 75.

DRAMA.

ART. 30.—*The School for Prejudice: a Comedy, in Five Acts. Performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas-Dibdin. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees.*

Mr. Dibdin's modesty does not presume to look forward to much praise for this attempt at comedy: had he expected it, indeed, it could not have been bestowed upon him. '*The School for Prejudice* was originally produced in three acts, under the title of *Liberal Opinions*: its success induced Mr. Harris to desire the author would make the additions which have since been so favourably received by the audience, and which (while most respectfully submitted to those who deign to peruse them in the closet) are now accompanied by his grateful acknowledgements, for the eminent and friendly exertions bestowed on them by all the performers.' *Advertisement.*

' ACT III.

' SCENE I.—*The Inside of John Grouse's Cottage. The Door opens towards a Wood.*

' *Enter John and Parchment.*

' *John.* What, and so he says he'll always be good to me, in spite of the old lady? Why, now, that's vary kind on him. I like him so well, that I think I cou'd go all over 'tworld to do ought for him. Well; but thou'll ha' a drop o' drink? a sup o' yeal, oud lad, weant thee?

' *Puish.* No, no, I thank ye. I have business in hand. Besides, there seems to be a storm brewing—Fare thee well.

' *John.* I mun away to work too. I ha' gotten a foine pig to kill—I hope his worsh'p will accept of some puddings. Bless his heart! he can eat a homely meal as well as a poorer man.

' *Parch.* And so he can, ha! ha! ha! I've seen him, after a long ride, take away the children's bread and butter, on purpose to give them something for it, ha! ha! ha!

' *John.* Ha! ha! ha! only think now, that of all trades, so good a man should have been bred a lawyer, and thee his clerk! Thou moant mind my jokes; but I've oft been puzzled to account for it—You lawyer folks are so cunning.

' *Parch.* Very cunning; and hardly one of them that isn't as keen as a Yorkshireman—You musn't mind my jokes, you know, ha! ha! ha! *[Exit.]*

John. Ha! ha! ha! Well, go thy ways—thou'rt a funny codd man, ha! ha! ha!—It gets very dark and cloudy—I think there'll be some thunder flashes come down afore long—My dame, I warrant, has gotten into some house on't road—I wonder where shev's put my great knife! t' pig will never get kill'd an' I doant find it.' F. 35.

It may afford a good-natured audience some pleasure to see a couple of honest countrymen so delighted with one another's jokes; but we fear they will hardly find wit enough in them to make them join in their laughter.

ART. 31.—*St. David's Day: or, the Honest Welchman. A Ballad Farce, in Two Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Dibdin. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees.*

This, though a local ballad; as the title shows, will give pleasure either to the reader or spectator from its simplicity. The author's abilities are more suited to farce than comedy. In the latter of these species of drama we expect something of dignity (though, it is true, of late years, we have been frequently disappointed); whilst a little frothy humour, or a song or two extravagantly sung, will always be a gallery passport for the former.

ART. 32.—*The Sixty-Third Letter: a Musical Farce, in Two Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Hay-Market. By Walter Chamberlain Oulton. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Barker. 1802.*

It is hardly needful for us to remark on the greater part of the farces, &c. of the present day, for they bear almost universally in their front the mark of their own condemnation—we mean, a dedication to some one performer or more, and an acknowledgement that, but for his or their exertions, the piece could not have succeeded. Ridiculous as such a declaration must appear, it is, unfortunately, often too true. The drama before us has, nevertheless, some merit: but we leave our readers to determine whether the ELEGANT EXPLETIVES which we have marked with capitals in the following scenery will serve to set off most the abilities of the author or the actor. It is a disgrace to a Christian audience, that they suffered a second representation till the imprecations had been obliterated.

SCENE II. *Sir Wilful's Study.*

Sir Wilful Positive discovered alone at Breakfast.

'I think I have properly secur'd my ward—I have bound her down by such promises that I may bid defiance to any secret lover—Here, Dulcet!—DAMN that fellow! he's worse than Casey—for ever running after some organ, or listening to a ballad-singer—I wonder my sister-in-law could recommend me such a servant, when she knew my aversion to music; but I dare say she did it on purpose to torment me.—Dulcet! (ringing a bell.)

Enter Dulcet, singing, "A master I have," &c.

'What is the reason I must ring for you so often?

‘*Dul.* I’m sorry for it—I’m sure, sir, I never wish to hear you ring, it’s such discord.—

‘*Sir W. P.* And CONFOUND your concord—here take away the things.

‘*Dul.* (*approaching the table, takes up the bell and begins to sing, ringing to the tune of*) “Merry are the bells and merry do they ring.”

‘*Sir W. P.* ZOUNDS! what do you mean? put down the bell.

‘*Dul.* (*singing*) “Merry is myself and merry will I sing.”

‘*Sir W. P.* Do you hear? put it down, and none of your DAMN’D music!

‘*Dul.* DAMN’D music!—

‘*Sir W. P.* This is no time for your CURS’D notes.

‘*Dul.* Lord, sir, I’ll beat time if you’ll let me (*hum a tune and beats time with his foot*).

‘*Sir W. P.* Be quiet, fellow! Isn’t it very hard I must be tormented every day with your ABOMINABLE sounds? In the morning you begin with what you call—“Good-morrow to your night-cap.”

‘*Dul.* “On two legs rid,” &c. (*singing.*)

‘*Sir W. P.* OUNS! be quiet—then at night you play on the table your DAMN’D CONFOUNDED noise of “Go to bed Tom.”

‘*Dul.* Oh, sir, every child can play that (*playing on the table.*)

‘*Sir W. P.* OUNS! he’ll break all the things—be quiet! how dare you make this noise in my ear?

‘*Dul.* Your ear! lord, sir, you have no ear!—You don’t know “Morgan Rattler” from “My lodging is on the cold ground.”

‘*Sir W. P.* If you don’t hold your tongue, and take away the things, DAM-ME I’ll knock you down, and then your lodging will be on the cold ground.—

‘*Dul.* “And hard, very hard be my fate—”

[*Exit with breakfast things.*]

‘*Sir W. P.* (*solus*) I must part with him immediately!—he has smash’d I don’t know how many china plates with playing the cymbals—all my tumblers with imitating the musical glasses, and crack’d a most beautiful tea-board with practising the tambourine—if at the street door, he is playing with the knocker; and if I call for a knife and fork at dinner, I must wait till he has finished a tune with them.’ P. 14.

NOVELS, &c.

ART. 33.—*Astonishment!!! a Romance of a Century ago.* By Francis Lathom. 2 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.

Has not Mr. Lathom almost thrown away his time in attempting this work, knowing, as he does, that ‘every character in common life has been so twisted, twirled, and strained, into every possible shape and variety, that some of the principal personages in every novel are, at least, cousins, if not more nearly related to some of the most prominent characters in any other you happen to open?’ We really give it as our opinion, that this observation of the author is a just one; and we think, that, from amongst the most prominent cha-

acters which every novel abounds in, it is a pity some better ones had not been selected to ingraft into the two volumes before us.

ART. 34.—*Atala. From the French of Mr. De Chateaubriant. With explanatory Notes.* 8vo. 5s. Bound. Robinsons. 1802.

This little translation has been already published, and admired for its interest and simplicity. The present edition is printed with much neatness, and ornamented with beautiful plates, by Heath.

ART. 35.—*Plantagenet: or, Secrets of the House of Anjou. A Tale of the twelfth Century.* By Anna Millikin. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Connor. 1802.

In these two volumes of Mrs. Millikin, are contained the marriage of William, son to Robert duke of Normandy, with a daughter of the duke of Anjou; preceded by a secret memoir of the ill treatment of the lady's father to his rightful duchess. It will not be expected that the author has followed facts in a novel; but the work has, however, enough of the appearance of probability to make it interesting.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 36.—*The General Gazetteer; or, compendious Geographical Dictionary. Containing a Description of the Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, Cities, Towns, Forts, Seas, Harbours, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, Capes, &c. in the known World; with the Government, Customs, Manners, and Religion of the Inhabitants; the Extent, Boundaries, and natural Productions of each Country; the Trade, Manufactures, and Curiosities of the Cities and Towns; their Longitude, Latitude, Bearings and Distances in English Miles from remarkable Places; and the various Events by which they have been distinguished. Including an Account of the Counties, Cities, Boroughs, Market-Towns, and principal Villages, in Great-Britain and Ireland. Illustrated by Maps. Originally written by R. Brookes, M. D. The twelfth Edition, with considerable Additions and Improvements.* 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1802.

This very useful publication is here again presented to the world with improvements of considerable magnitude and importance. The correctness attained in this new edition will render it a book to be depended upon for general reference.

ART. 37.—*The Picture of London, for 1803; being a correct Guide to all the Curiosities, Amusements, Exhibitions, Public Establishments, and remarkable Objects, in and near London; with a collection of appropriate Tables. For the Use of Strangers, Foreigners, and all Persons who are not intimately acquainted with the British Metropolis.* 12mo. 5s. Bound. Philips.

We do not know a book likely to be of more general utility than the volume before us. The compilers have been careful to include every circumstance worthy of remark in the metropolis and its immediate environs. We will venture to recommend it as a cheap and valuable assistant to every foreigner newly resident in London, and to every country gentleman who may occasionally spend a month in the capital.

ART. 38.—*A Practical Guide during a Journey from London to Paris; with a correct Description of all the Objects deserving of Notice in the French Metropolis. Illustrated with Maps and useful Tables. The Second Edition corrected.* 12mo. 5s. Bound. Philips. 1803.

This guide is less valuable than the preceding article only, because its usefulness is less general among the inhabitants of our own nation. To such Englishmen, however, as find themselves likely to visit Paris, either on business or pleasure, it will prove an instructive companion. Five different routes are pointed out from the one metropolis to the other; and the streets, public buildings, &c. in the French capital, are given with considerable accuracy. It will be a traveler's own fault if he do not profit, both in mind and pocket, by the information here afforded him.

ART. 39.—*The Hermit of the Alps. Translated from the German of an anonymous Writer, with a few Alterations. By John Richardson.* 12mo. 2s. Jones. 1802.

What part of this work has been translated, or what part of it is the produce of Mr. Richardson's pen, the reader will hardly find it worth his labour to investigate. The translator is less modest than the author; the latter, we should think, was ashamed to put his name to it.

ART. 40.—*Proverbs; or, the Manual of Wisdom: being an Alphabetical Arrangement of the best English, Spanish, French, Italian, and other Proverbs. To which are subjoined, the wise Sayings, Precepts, Maxims, and Reflexions, of the most illustrious Ancients.* 8vo. Kirby. 1803.

Though Chesterfield forbids the use of proverbs in company, yet have they been recommended by the wise of every age and nation. The collection of the present compiler is a very judicious one; for he has rejected, as himself remarks, 'those proverbs which are merely local, quaint sayings that apply not to real life and manners, ridiculous similes, fit only for the vulgar to repeat;' and besides, however witty, 'every thing that could taint the mind, or injure the morals.' We must express our approbation of the alphabetical arrangement; but we think the proverbs of different nations, as far as possible, ought also to have been distinguished. If we may give our opinion freely on the subject, we must say, that the trouble attending such a research was more likely to deter the compiler from entering upon it, than a conviction that the distinction would have been indifferent to any class of readers.

ART. 41.—*Mottos; or, Imagery of Life. By William Robson.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Parsons. 1802.

Sometimes the thoughts which occur in this little volume are not unimportant in themselves: but the author has dressed them in such uncouth phraseology, that the reader will be tempted to smile at sentiments which should make him serious. Mr. Robson should study the style of more experienced writers than himself, before he come forward again as a candidate for public approbation.

ART. 42.—Errata. By a Sailor. Vols. II. and III. 12mo. 7s. sewed. Ogilvy. 1802.

The author has infused the same spirit and humour into these volumes, as entertained the readers of his first. We smile, read further, and for a moment are dissatisfied; yet we continue to read, and grow pleased again. While we continued to think the *Errata* to be the production of a sailor (*literally a sailor*), we could find no fault; but, having now heard, by the by, that this sailor is a classical one (a chaplain), we must express a wish that he had employed the file frequently—Haste has left many a sentence almost ungrammatically incorrect.

ART. 43.—A Set of Tables for showing the exact Bearing and Distance of Lights, or any other visible fixed Objects, accurately calculated from the Angle found between the Ship's Course and the Bearing of the Light, increasing progressively from one Point on either Bow to the Beam, and from the Beam to two Points on either Quarter. By Thomas Pyman, for more than forty Years a Captain in the Merchant's Service. 4to. 5s. Boards. Law. 1802.

These tables are made by an easy and obvious trigonometrical rule, and will save the mariner the trouble of calculating the sides of a triangle from the base (the distance run), and the angles at the base (or the bearings of the light) being given. They are calculated for a half mile and upwards to seven miles, where it is necessary, increasing by half-mile degrees. The angles are measured by points, their difference being a half, or two points.

ART. 44.—Tables for facilitating the Calculations of Nautical Astronomy, and particularly of the Latitude of a Ship at Sea from two Altitudes of the Sun, and that of the Longitude from the Distances of the Moon from the Sun or a Star; containing the natural versed Sines to every ten Seconds of the logarithmic Series, double Sines, versed Sines, &c. to every Minute from 0 to 180 Degrees; and several other Tables useful in Astronomy and Navigation. By Joseph Mendoza Rios, Esq. F. R. S. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Faulder. 1802.

Very useful tables, from which every requisite may be found in calculating the latitude and longitude at sea, the tables giving the necessary corrections for parallax, refractions, dip, &c.; and, in the preface to them, a sufficient number of instances is given by which their use may be learned, and with sufficient application they will be found very useful in practice.

ART. 45.—Tables calculated for the Arbitration of Exchanges, both Simple and compound; with an Account of the Currencies and Monies of the principal Commercial Cities of Europe. Taken from the latest and best Authorities. By J. R. Teschemacher. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Boosey. 1802.

This is a work of much value to the commercial world. The trouble attending exchanges is well known; and, as the author properly

observes, if a short time only be allowed for the determination of the most advisable mode of making a payment at a distant place, it must be desirous that the calculation should be rendered as easy as possible. In general such calculation is made by the addition of several ratios together; and consequently if in paying a sum at Venice it is desired to know whether the payment should be made through Amsterdam, Hamburg, and Vienna, there must be long multiplications and a compound division. This trouble is saved by adapting numbers to the course of exchange of the principal commercial towns in Europe, and the addition or subtraction of these numbers answers the same end as multiplication and division in the common mode. The work is remarkably cheap, containing 117 quarto pages, of which forty-eight are of tables, and selling at only one guinea and a half. When we compare the labour of the author with the sum that was contributed a short time since by the commercial world to an insignificant plan of merchants' accounts, we are rather surprised that he has not set a higher price upon his publication. Every 'compting-house of extensive connexions must find the advantage of possessing the tables here offered, whose use may in a very short time be acquired by all their clerks; and the advantages to be derived from various combinations of exchanges may be presented to the principal in as short a time as he can by the usual mode make a single calculation.

ART. 46.—*Tables of the several European Exchanges, shewing, by Inspection, the Value of any Sum of Money in all the principal Places of Europe, at the different Prices to which the Courses of Exchange may Rise or Fall. And describing in what Money, real or imaginary, Books and Accounts are usually kept, and Bills are Drawn at each Place, with the plain Method of Calculation by the Rule of Three. Tables equating the Moneys of the different Provinces of Spain with each other, and a Table of the Flemish Money. To which is prefixed an Account of the Usances, or Times at which Bills are Drawn, from the several Places, together with the Days of Grace allowed in each. By Robert Bewicke. 2 Vols. 4to. 4s. 4s. Boards. Richardson. 1802.*

In these two very thick quarto volumes are contained tables which show the value of any sum of money by means of an easy addition in the currency of any of the great commercial towns, according to the probable rates of exchange which can take place between them. Hence, the value of a bill at any one place is easily ascertained; but, in the arbitration of exchanges, these tables will be found very laborious, when compared with those of Mr. Teschemacher, whose tables are contained in a twelfth part of the size here presented, and perform the operations in about a twelfth part of the time. In houses of very extensive trade, both works, however, may be found useful.

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

FEBRUARY, 1803.

ART. I.—*A Journal of the Forces which sailed from the Downs, in April 1800, on a secret Expedition under the Command of Lieutenant-General Pigot, till their Arrival in Minorca; and continued through all the subsequent Transactions of the Army under the Command of the Right Honorable General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. in the Mediterranean and Egypt; and the latter Operations under the Command of Lieutenant-General Lord Hutchinson, K. B. to the Surrender of Alexandria: with a particular Account of Malta, during the Time it was subject to the British Government. By Aeneas Anderson, Lieut. 40th Reg. Illustrated by Engravings. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Debrett. 1802.*

THE work of Mr. Anderson pretends to little more than the merit of a journal; and, even as a journal, it is dry and uninteresting. What relates to Malta is indeed a little relieved above the general dulness; but, in literary composition, Malta is classic ground; and the narrative of its siege, in Watson's History of Philip the Second, is in a strain at once so interesting and elegant—a strain that so completely seises, and at the same time engrosses, the attention; that elevates the knights so far above the common race of mortals, by a brilliant display of actions beyond the common powers of man—that, in Malta, we are accustomed to look for every thing heroic and romantic. If such splendid achievements have not decorated the late war, this, it may be said, is not the fault of the author. We will admit, if he please, that it is his misfortune; but we must still feel the contrast. Whence Dr. Watson copied the narrative, we have not been fortunate enough to discover. We believe it, however, to be copied, as it is a 'strain of higher mood' than his history, and requires no further elevation to be truly epic.

The earlier parts of the volume are, as we have said, uninteresting. The threat against Cadiz has always appeared to us a singular and unaccountable action: we fear it may

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be styled, in every view, a disgraceful exploit. To attack a city struggling under the ravages of a most fatal pestilence, is at least ungenerous; and if, as the commanders remark, the object were limited to the shipping, why was the attempt abandoned? Was it because the forts were too strong to be subdued by arms, and the moment of sickness and despondency was chosen to intimidate?—The authors of the expedition will blush to make such a humiliating confession; yet, to desist from the object on receiving a resolute answer to the bravading summons, appears to sanction the suspicion. The whole may be in time explained; and we hope the character of the nation will not suffer in the explanation. It is the attempt, and not its relinquishment, that requires an apology. Mr. Anderson has added nothing to what we already knew; but we shall select the Spanish commander's truly heroic answer to the summons he received, which we suppose has not yet been published.

‘English admiral—When the cruel scourge which carries off, in this city and its environs, thousands of victims, and which seems as if it would not suspend its ravages until it has cut off all those who have yet escaped it, is so unhappily calculated to excite compassion, I see with surprise that the squadron under the command of your excellency, is come to add to the consternation of the people. I have too good an opinion of the humanity of the English people, and of yours in particular, to believe that you would endeavour to render our situation more deplorable. Yet if, in consequence of the orders which his excellency has received, he consents to draw upon himself the execration of all people, to cover himself with opprobrium in the eyes of the whole universe, by oppressing the unfortunate, and attacking him whom he thinks to be without defence; I declare to him, that the garrison under my command, accustomed to look at death with a serene brow, as well as to brave greater perils than all the perils of war, will know how to make a resistance, which shall only terminate with the entire annihilation of their enemies. I hope that the reply of your excellency will inform me, whether I am to console the miserable inhabitant, or rouse him to vengeance and anger. God protect your excellency!

‘*Cádiz, Oct. 5.*

THOMAS DE MORLA.

‘Hitherto the ships employed in the blockade had not prevented the fishermen from exercising their innocent industry. It must cause astonishment that your excellency should deprive us of this feeble relief.’ P. 81.

Every thing was ready, and the troops embarked. From every circumstance, we have little doubt of their success; but it would have been a success we should have greatly regretted; nor do we know the bosom that would not have joined in lamenting it.

The account of Malta and its various and invincible

fortresses is very minute, and at times interesting. Whose it may eventually become, we know not; but we trust that it will never be commanded either by French troops, or by any under their influence. Malta is undoubtedly the key of Egypt; and its conquest was the first step in a train of incalculable events, planned by Leibnitz, a subject of the elector of Hanover, with a view to the attainment of the commerce of India—though at that time the attempt was not peculiarly inimical to this country. In the present instance, it was, as we have before observed, obtained by treachery—an opinion in which Mr. Anderson fully agrees:—it is equally clear that the knights of St. John are no longer able to defend it; nor would it be prudent to trust those who have once been corrupted. British soldiers, beloved as they evidently are by the Maltese, are the only guarantees who should be relied on; and we lament the obstacle that accrues from the treaty of Amiens.

The description of streets, castles, and churches, will not admit of abridgement: it is, however, minute and entertaining. The following anecdote is of a piece with other records of French enormities, and cannot be made too public. It must be remembered that we mean not to accuse the nation, who, we know, detest such transactions as well as ourselves, but the army, thus wantoning in its ravages, and revolting, at the same time, and in an equal degree, humanity, justice, and religion.

‘Citta Vecchia, which, as has been already mentioned, is situated in the centre of the island, was its ancient metropolis. It is the seat of a bishop, and possesses some remarkable buildings, among which are the Palazzo Magistrale, and the cathedral.

‘In a vault beneath the church are now seen the mouldering forms of several monks, who, till the arrival of the French, were the officiating priesthood. Their brief, extraordinary, and lamentable history is as follows:

‘Soon after Bonaparte left this island to conduct his expedition to Egypt, a French garrison was marched into Citta Vecchia, whose first object was, as usual, to pillage the public buildings, and plunder the inhabitants; and when they found resistance, massacre and bloodshed accompanied their rapine. When, therefore, they began to despoil this venerable edifice, the monks fled for safety into the adjoining catacombs, and being lost in their subterranean mazes, were starved to death: nor were they found, till after the enraged peasantry had risen to revenge their wrongs; when, after a plentiful massacre of the French, they drove the rest to the shelter of La Valetta.

‘The inhabitants of Citta Vecchia, to perpetuate the hatred of this act of sacrilege, as well as of the people who practised it, have placed the bodies of these pious victims in a vault beneath the church, where they appear in the dress of their order, and in the attitudes in which they were found dead in the catacombs.

'The Maltese manifested the first disposition to revolt, at the moment when the French were in the act of pillaging this church.—A garrison, consisting of about an hundred men, was attacked, and the greater part of them destroyed. The commandant, also, was thrown from the balcony of the house in which he resided. The French, alarmed at this spirited act of resentment, immediately withdrew their men from the different parts of the country, and retired within the walls of La Valetta. The design of an insurrection to take place in that city had been formed; but such precautions were employed by the French as to prevent it from being carried into execution.' p. 149.

Mr. Anderson might have added, with advantage, some observations from Sonnini, and other travelers. He *has* added some extensive remarks on the natural history of the island, from Dolomieu. We recollect having seen them, but are not able to determine in what work. We wish to recover it, as some parts want an explanation. It would have greatly elucidated the subject, even to have premised that Malta, in the direction of its length, is from north-west to south-east, and that Gozzo, with the narrower part of the island, is on the north-west:—it lies between Sicily and Cape Bon. Of the former, the projecting wedge-like promontory is towards the west; and, on the other hand, the Cape trends to the north and the west.

Malta is a calcareous rock; but the industry of the inhabitants has given it as much fertility as a calcareous rock can admit; and artificial soil is even imported from Sicily. The population is said to exceed 90,000 souls, and the territorial revenues 34,000*l.* sterling.

'The thermometer of Réaumur is generally during the summer in Malta, below 25, and very seldom above 28. In winter it is very rarely below the eighth degree from the freezing point.

'The time when the heat or cold is most particularly felt, is not when the thermometer marks either of the extreme points of our temperature: there is almost a continual contrast between our sensations, and the instruments which measure the true temperature of the air, between the heat which is felt, and that which is real.

'The directions of the winds, and their variations, produce an instantaneous change from hot to cold, and the reverse: the wind from the north or north-west always occasions cold, and that from the south produces heat.

'The north-west wind gives the greatest degree of clearness to the air; that from the north-east renders it less clear, and that clearness considerably declines when it changes to the south-east or south; but increases in a small degree at the south-west, which is generally the time when the sea is in the most active state of agitation.

'The winds from the north-west are rendered salubrious by the great extent of sea which they traverse: those from the north would undergo an alteration in Italy and Sicily, if the strong vegetation of those fine countries did not tend to purify the atmosphere.

'The winds from the south are rendered unwholesome, by passing over the sandy and burning continent of Africa; where there is little or no vegetation; or the heat is so excessive, that every thing capable of rarefaction on the ground, forms exhalations that impregnate the atmosphere: they are not purified in their passage over the sea, from the narrow state of the channel; and the water being under the shelter of the land, has not sufficient agitation to absorb, by its motion, the mephitical miasma which the air contains. The cold, which is sometimes extremely sharp during the winter, is occasioned by the very clear air from the north. During the summer, when the wind is at south-west, the alteration in the usual clearness of the air is such, that if it were to change a few degrees more, it would be impossible to respire; and a dense atmosphere, formed by insensible perspiration, would occasion suffocation.

'The winds from the south do not continue for more than two or three days at a time, when they are succeeded by calms, during which the heat is very great, but less oppressive and suffocating, although the thermometer at that time often indicates a real heat much more considerable. The air is then more salubrious, and breezes from the sea, both by day and night, refresh the atmosphere, bringing with them a pure air from the surface of the water, and raising on it a gentle motion. In the morning there are breezes which blow off the land, which, though they may be less pure, are agreeably refreshing.

'When the wind changes from south to north, a lightness and ease of respiration is experienced which is altogether astonishing. It is a certain fact, that the air becomes from twenty to twenty-five degrees purer in an instant, and often more, although the thermometer does not experience the least alteration.' p. 160.

We scarcely know what is meant by 'purer' It cannot be from any eudiometrical experiment, for no such difference exists in any comparative situations or times.

The high grounds of Malta are not in the direction of its length, but on the side towards Africa; viz. on the south and south-east. The least uneven part of the island is at its greatest breadth, at the east of La Valetta; and the direction of the valleys is of course from the higher to the lower grounds, It is these valleys which constitute the harbours of Malta; and the depth of water, at different parts of the north-eastern coast, is occasioned by the deep channels formed by the rain from the higher grounds.

'The land of Gozo is much higher than that of Malta, and the coasts are defended by perpendicular rocks of a frightful appearance; the loftiest of which are towards the south and west. Those which guard the parts of Malta, opposite to Gozo and Comino, correspond with the rocks of those islands. Some vallies which are in the same direction with those of Malta, do not form ports to this island on account of the high land that surrounds them. Its surface is less uneven than that of Malta, and consequently better adapted for cultivation: it appears, indeed, that the upper bed was originally, in a great de-

gree, horizontal; but in both islands the rock is of the same nature. In each of them there are hills, either insulated or connected with others, whose summits are remarkably flat and level; and it is very perceptible that these summits formed a part of the original surface, as they are covered with stones much harder, more heavy, and of a closer grain than the rest. The under-beds are of different consistencies, and more or less subject to decay, according to their exposure to the air. Some of these beds are composed of a ferruginous sand, feebly cemented with a chalky glutinous substance. On the opposite sides of the steep rocks of Malta, and in the hollow spaces which separate the hills in Gozo, there are some little hillocks, of a greyish clay, which does not appear to be natural to the places where it is found; and must have accumulated after the excavation of the vallies. The rains, to which these hillocks offer but a weak resistance, have mouldered and formed them into the figures they possess.

‘ Hence it becomes a curious question respecting the origin of the clay found in Malta and Gozo; how it can have surmounted the precipices of the last island, if it did not previously form a part of some elevated ground, from whence it must have descended. Conjecture may also be awakened respecting the red clay, a sort of virgin earth, which fills the perpendicular clefts of the rocks. The waters which have hollowed out the vallies, must have flowed in great abundance, having had the force to make such an impression on the rock, which, though not of the hardest nature, must nevertheless have offered a considerable resistance. The island, in its present extent, can never have produced such torrents, when the heaviest rains in winter form nothing more than small momentary rivulets in the bottoms of the vallies: nor can the sharp rocky precipices have been naturally formed by a mass accumulated from the successive deposits of the sea. There is every reason to believe that the island of Malta must have been part of a mountain, and that the rocky precipices which bound it to the south, east and west, could not have been formed but by the sinking and destruction of all the substances which were attached to them, as the water beneath is of a profound depth.

‘ All round the coasts of the three islands are evident marks of violence; and the rocks, at some distance from the coast, are the fragments of the part which has been destroyed. In one word, the form of these islands, all the local circumstances, and a number of particular phenomena, prove that a great extent of land must have existed towards the south and west; and that the destruction of the part removed has been effected by a convulsion contrary to the common order of things. It appears that this destructive power must have proceeded from the west, and that it has acted most forcibly against the part attached to Gozo.’ p. 167.

This is the language of observation, not of system; and we select it, for the purpose of adding, that it confirms what we have frequently remarked, that the current of the ocean is from the south and towards the west. In the Mediterranean, it must be of course from the west; and Malta is necessarily found separated from the continent of Africa,

perhaps also from Sicily, and, eventually, from Italy. This indeed is the system of our author, or, if we recollect rightly, of Dolomieu.

The Maltese are lively, active, and industrious: their language is a mixture of Arabic and Italian; but Vassari contends that they have a language of their own, peculiarly animated and expressive: it is, apparently, allied to the Phœnician. Many curious particulars of the Maltese economy and manners are added.

The fleet proceeded to Marimorice, on the coast of Carminia, to wait for the horses and gun-boats to be furnished by the Turks. They were in part disappointed; but, with the best assistance they could obtain, they advanced to the coast of Egypt. The general orders form an admirable copy for future officers, dictated by the most consummate judgment and prudence, and with a foresight almost unexampled.

The campaign in Egypt is next detailed, from some reports of officers communicated to Mr. Anderson. On the whole, the account is clear and correct; but we have already enlarged sufficiently on the subject; and the little variations which we remark, are too trifling to be the object of animadversion. Even were they more important, as no authority is affixed, we could not with propriety insist on the contradictions they contain. Otherwise, we might perhaps have pointed them out for future elucidation.

The remainder of the volume is not very interesting. It fills the bulk, and perhaps gratifies a minute curiosity, with an account of the funeral of general Abercromby, the arrival of general Fox, and the departure of general Pigot. What yet ensues is of more importance; *viz.* the feelings and the representations of the Maltese with respect to the restoration of the island to the order, and the guarantee of Russia. Of the order, they say, with truth, that, the revenues of the knights being lost, they have no power of defending the island; that Maltese troops will be no longer trusted; and that the garrison, if the island be surrendered, will always be in the pay of France. The following observations merit particular attention:

‘ They know that Russia is at this moment eager to see the order, or what is equivalent, France, hold Malta, (the intercepted letters prove this;) that Russia, however her projects against Turkey may lie dormant during one reign, will ever be revived; and that whoever has Malta has a sure means of uniting with Russia; and that if France will give up the Turks, she may rely on the co-operation of Russia to oppose the British having any power in the Mediterranean.

‘ They know that Russia, united with France, may exclusively en-

joy all the commerce of the Levant; that France may be supplied with naval stores from the Black Sea in all security; that a Russian army may march in a few days from their settlements in the south of the Caspian, to the dominions of Zaman Sha, and put into effect the threats of the late empress Catharine, to drive us out of India.

‘ In short, as long as they are persuaded that Malta is the key of India, and the link that will unite Russia and France, that will shut us out of the Mediterranean, and prevent us for ever from counteracting the influence of France in Italy; that will create a naval power, which may one day appear, and bid us defiance in the Atlantic.

‘ As long as Great Britain possesses Malta, though every surrounding nation be our enemies, she will be mistress of the Mediterranean.

‘ With respect to England, they are not ignorant of the importance of this island as a place of commerce; that this would be the great market for British manufacture, and Italian, Turkish, and Russian products; that in this arsenal every convenience for building, fitting out, or laying up a fleet, is to be found; that this might be the granary of Europe; that corn, to any amount, might be collected here, and stored up, from the Black Sea, from Egypt, and from every port where it were cheap, to supply every country where it may be wanted, and Great Britain itself in time of scarcity.’ p. 507.

These views are of the highest importance; and we have little doubt that they have already obtained the attention of administration. We ought not to engage in the discussion; but may express our warmest hopes, that the island will not be unconditionally restored.

The work is handsomely printed, and adorned with numerous plates. The most important are, the plan of the chief cities of Malta, and of the bay of Marmorice. We wish the writer had subjoined a map of the island, as, situated between Europe and Africa, it is seldom noticed in common maps, but as an appendage on the north or south, meriting little attention. Various views are annexed, of Cadiz, and of different fortresses of Malta. We have, however, seen nothing in a style so truly incorrect as these drawings, or so imperfect as these representations. In pity, we shall add no more.

ART. II.—*Public Characters of 1799-1800. To be continued annually.* 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Phillips.

TO delineate the characters of persons yet alive, in public or respectable stations, is a work of no common difficulty, but of considerable interest. We eagerly catch at every anecdote, which friendship may communicate, or prying curiosity elicit; and—such is the human mind—we perhaps wish to bring exalted characters nearer to our own level, by the discovery of little imperfections. The im-

propriety, however, as well as the danger, of these latter communications, is sufficiently obvious; and the path lies, as it ought to do, 'per ignes suppositos cineri doloso.' The old adage is reversed in this publication, and 'de *viventibus* nil nisi bonum,' is the motto. The authors may indeed choose their own subjects: friendship is warmly alive, to tincture with favourable colours; and the truth, when it must be told, may be occasionally softened. A combination of varnished pictures will, however, be the result; and such are, in general, the portraits before us.

The signatures, added to each life, display the semblance, perhaps the existence, of different authors, and the narrative supports the distinction of pens: yet the style is nearly the same; and, as in one of the Spectator's visions, we think we perceive some *prudent* personage (in the Spectator, it is TIME) examining each portrait, softening each harsher trait, and expunging each petty imperfection. This personage we behold ('in our mind's-eye, Horatio') peculiarly attentive to political characters, and those who have taken a distinguished part in *some* disputed questions. He has heightened the portrait of the democrat, though somewhat at the expense of the likeness. He has softened the severity of the modern reformer, whose rugged overhanging eye-brows remind us of Calvin, and who has at times only wanted power to be also a persecutor of another Servetus. He has corrected the sullen scowl of the disappointed patriot who aimed at confusion, that, in a new order of things, he too might have a chance of triumph. Fancy, indeed, may have misled us; yet thus general appears to us the corrective. But though the same 'prudent' personage has not been wholly idle while retracing other lives, we do not perceive an equal anxiety to finish and render the portrait pleasing. In truth, we suspect that history will not always look to these volumes as authority, even *with* the assistance of 'TIME.'

We reviewed the first volume of the work in our own 24th volume, and the second edition in vol. 26th, New Arr. We then spoke of the attempt with hesitation and doubt. In many respects, delicacy is still infringed upon; for few are willing to be forcibly dragged into open day; and, though foibles be not blazoned, and errors be concealed, the exhibition is still public. Laberius is forced on the stage, as in the time of Julius Cæsar; and he who went from home a Roman knight, returns a public performer.

The interest, however, which the world feels for the minuter history of eminent men, has called for repeated successive volumes. The lives are undoubtedly executed with unequal abilities and accuracy; but they are often enter-

taining; nor indeed can any author, we think, be offended, unless by a general objection of being thus introduced. We shall, in the present article, again turn over the pages, and point out a few excellencies and exceptions.

In the preface, the editors claim, very pointedly, the merit of communications from different authors distinguished by initials; and 'it is presumed that no sentiment has place in this volume, which can give a moment's pain to any of the personages whose memoirs are inserted.'

'It results, however, as a consequence of this necessary arrangement, that the work contains much variation of style, and considerable inequality of literary merit. Thus, while some articles only recommend themselves as containing a simple statement of facts, others, communicated by gentlemen of distinguished literary attainments, abound in moral and critical observations, and combine, with unquestionable authenticity, the graces of elegant composition.

'It is presumed that no sentiment has place in this volume which can give a moment's pain to any of the personages whose memoirs are inserted. Corrections of any such passages, should they unfortunately exist, and valuable and authentic communications or additions to any of the articles, will henceforward be affixed to each subsequent volume in the form of an appendix.' p. iii.

The memoirs are those of

'Earl of St Vincent—Mr. Sheridan—Hon. Thomas Erskine—Rev. Dr. Parr—Dr. Charles Hutton—Lord Hawkesbury—Dean Milner—Bishop of Meath—Rev. William Farish—Sir Francis Bourgeois—Duke of Richmond—Mrs. Abington—Mr. Saurin—Dr. Samuel Arnold—Lord Bridport—Marquis of Lansdown—Sir John Parnell—Mr. Southey—Doctor Duigenan—Mr. George Ponsonby—Mr. Granville Sharp—Lord Pelham—Duke of Grafton—Mr. secretary Cooke—Major Cartwright—Duke of Leinster—Mrs. Inchbald—Earl Fitzwilliam—Mr. William Godwin—Rev. Mr. Graves—Mr. Shield—Sir George Yonge—Doctor Garnet—Lord Dillon—Lord Castlereagh—Dr. Adam Fergusson—Mr. William Hayley—Countess of Derby—Mr. Pratt—Dr. Harrington—Duchess of Gordon—Doctor Currie—Duke of Bedford—Mr. William Cowper—Miss Linwood—Lord Kenyon—Mr. Hastings.' p. iv.

The two first lives merit great commendation. That of lord St. Vincent is related with ability and judgement. It is of course panegyric; but we know not that any thing can be detracted. If we hesitate, it relates to his evidence on admiral Keppel's trial, and we chiefly hesitate on the score of party. We well know that predilection will sometimes warp the judgement; and lord St. Vincent was *then* in opposition. Lord Keppel did every thing, perhaps, that naval tactics could at that time have performed; but were lord St. Vincent again to *review* that engagement, and recollect his own conduct, as well as that of lord Rodney, he might ask,

Why did lord Keppel bear down in line? Why did he not cut off a part? Why was the British fleet at last brought into action in a crippled state?—Had lord St. Vincent done so, he would have lost his most verdant laurel.

‘ Had he fought at Holmedon *thus*,
He ne’er had triumphed over’ the Spaniard.

At a period not very distant from that of the action, in reviewing a work on naval tactics *, and particularly remarking the success of Suffrein in the East Indies, we ventured an observation, that the old system must be abandoned if we would succeed. It *was* abandoned by lord Rodney off Grenada; by lord St. Vincent off the coast of Spain; by lord Duncan off Camperdown; and by lord Nelson in the Bay of Aboukir.

The life of Mr. Sheridan is written with singular ability. Words and sentiments may perhaps be objected to: but where is the author, who writes on such a subject, who could guard every avenue? and where is the critic, who can discover the fault, who could attain as much merit?—The life of Mr. Erskine, with similar minute exceptions, is entitled to equal commendation.

The life of Dr. Parr is written with a warmth of enthusiasm, which leads us to apprehend a little, perhaps venial, partiality. It is indeed truth in its fairest garb; and the minuter circumstances show, that, if any thing be concealed, it is not from ignorance: if a *perfectly* candid criticism of the doctor’s works do not appear, it is not from incompetence.—Dr. Hut on’s gradual progress is admirably described, and we think his life a truly valuable abstract of his labours—of the ladder by which he industriously climbed to eminence.—Of dean Milner, from the same cause, the life is peculiarly interesting. Our information does not enable us to determine the accuracy of the progressive steps, which, however, we have not the slightest reason to impeach. We were much pleased with the following observations.

‘ A short time after he became president of Queen’s, he took out his doctor’s degree, and was presented with the deanery of Carlisle. It is his custom to visit this place regularly every year, but he seldom resides there long. Hull, before the decease of his brother (for whom he entertained a high regard, but called, on account of his methodism, his *strange brother*), was the most favourite place of his residence. His lodgings were a complete workshop, filled with all kinds of carpenter’s and turner’s instruments. He was accustomed here to relax his mind daily from the fatigues of study, by some manual labour. His lathe and appendages for turning were extremely curious, and

cost him no less than one hundred and forty guineas. He had also a very curious machine, partly of his own invention, which formed and polished at the same time, with the utmost possible exactness, watch-wheels of every description.

‘A celebrated moralist of the present day maintains, that manual labour is one great source of happiness. It is evident that we cannot bear, without injury, for any long time, intense and uninterrupted thought; it is equally clear, that, when the mind, without any object of pursuit, is left to its own spontaneous sensibilities, it turns either to the future or the past; and, as we are either melancholy or gay, so is the prospect before us. This state, therefore, of sensibility, exercising the mind, not according to the real existence of things, but to their accidental impression, is seldom profitable; besides this, it can be no relief to a mind already wearied with deep thinking. Something is wanted for this purpose, which gently exercises the mental powers, on some corporeal movement. Manual labour, requiring just dexterity enough to abstract the mind from its accustomed operations, seems best to answer this end. Let it not, therefore, be a matter of surprise or ridicule, that a man of enlarged understanding, as in the present instance, should stoop for amusement to the drudgery of mechanical employment. It is not even enough to call uncle Toby’s whims inoffensive, they were really useful; and our hobbies, whatever they be, are founded in nature, and indispensable to our happiness.’ P. 144.

A work of this kind is chiefly calculated to bring forward concealed merits, sometimes concealed peculiarities. Of this nature is the life of Mr. Farish, a recluse collegian, whose knowledge of the mathematics is profound; and of mechanics, particularly the useful and practical parts, peculiarly extensive. The life of sir Francis Bourgeois, a landscape painter of singular merit, is of a similar nature.

It may be observed, that we pass over many memoirs, of which it must be understood that they merit no material praise or censure; or that our information is unable to detect what errors may exist. The same omissions will, for similar reasons, recur in the remainder of the article. In the life of the Irish barrister, Mr. Saurin, the union with England is entitled ‘the surrender of the constitution and independence of his country.’ On this occasion, we cannot omit one short observation. If Ireland be connected in the interest of a political and federal nature with this country, the union does not deserve this language: if it be wholly and distinctly an independent kingdom, it is allowable. But where is the English author who will admit the former? and where is the politician who will say that Ireland is as much attached to France and Spain as to England? The independence of Ireland is therefore an idle form of speech, except in the mouth of those who wish it to be wholly independent of this country. If it be regarded as an appendage

to it, and such it has been considered for a century and a half, a close and perfect union is preferable to either.—The lives of Dr. Arnold and Mr. Shield are confessedly communicated by Dr. Busby, and of course claim our approbation as authentic.

Of the memoir of lord Shelburne, we can speak highly as a varnished painting; but it is not a likeness. The colours are brilliant, and even glaring: the keeping scientifically managed, and the whole so successfully delusive, that, acquainted as we are with the subject, we could almost consider it as a true picture. One part of the character is, however, kept from our view; viz. the consummate art which has distinguished the marquis through life.—No: we mistake: it is not concealed, but expanded over the whole portrait.

Mr. Granville Sharp next claims our attention, as a well-written life of a most excellent man, whose active benevolence merits the highest commendation. In many parts of his conduct, we think, however, that he has mistaken his object. He examined others through the medium of his own feelings; and, as he discovered in his own bosom not an atom of selfishness, ingratitude, or inhumanity, he did not suspect it in others. It is not his fault that some of the worst consequences have resulted from several of his public attempts; nor can the lives lost by England and France in the West Indies, in consequence, not of the abolition of the slave-trade, but of the emancipation of the negroes, though a consequence of the benevolent system of Mr. Sharp and his coadjutors, be attributed to them more than the horrors of the French revolution to the first abettors of American independence. Yet each was the first act of the subsequent dire tragedies.—Major Cartwright, the next in our list, is a reformer of the same school, with intentions perhaps equally benevolent, and at times equally injudicious. We rest, however, with less confidence on this life, as it is so minute that it seems to come immediately or indirectly from the major himself. We perceive the ‘front and rear’ noticed by an acute observer on another occasion, as proofs of the major’s pen. We behold parts of confidential letters, the substance of which is concealed, and are not told whence the selected passages are derived—‘*Aut Erasmi, aut*’

We were much pleased with the life of Mrs. Inchbald, and think it a very authentic and correct account. We hesitate a little respecting the cause of her leaving the Edinburgh stage, which is attributed to the ill usage of Mrs. Yates. We knew a little of that subject; but, at this distance, dare not trust our memory. We are glad to hear that we shall probably have the memoirs of her life from her

own pen.—Of lord Fitzwilliam, the account is apparently correct and satisfactory.

The varnished life of Mr. Godwin, on the other hand, merits the severest censure. Never were sounding words or polished sentences more improperly employed in gilding sophistry and principles highly dangerous in their consequences, and, in one respect, highly immoral—we mean the artful varnish and gross misconduct in the life of his wife. There are some passages which have greatly perplexed us. ‘In the scheme of Calvin,’ it is observed, ‘there is much to attract a religious mind, having the intrepidity to pursue an argument through all its consequences.’ We have not sufficiently studied Calvinism to understand this curious sentence. It is apparently designed only for the initiated. In another passage which struck us, we can more easily find our way. ‘She (Mrs. Wollstonecraft) was one of those, that the powers of nature and the cultivation of society sometimes unite to form, for whom every sensible and polished mind almost loses its veneration in the excess of its love.’ We can easily perceive that we may lose our veneration for such a character; but can scarcely see how it can be in any sense (except one) from excess of love.

We were highly pleased with a judicious and genuine tribute to the character of Mr. Graves, whom we have followed in his eventful literary life with singular pleasure, whose liveliness, good-nature, and urbanity, have cheered many a gloomy hour, and whom we rejoice to find still healthy and active. The life of sir George Yonge is dated from Devonshire, and seems to have been written by one who knows him well, and wishes to gild some errors, and to conceal many defects.—Of Dr. Garnet, the account is also favorable; but, whatever may have been his errors or defects, he no longer ranks among living authors; and his character may be better appreciated in another work.—Of Dr. Adam Fergusson, the life is written *con amore*, and with some of the venial exaggeration of friendship. We call that venial exaggeration, where there is much to praise with truth, and where the author only steps a little beyond the limits of propriety.

The character of Mr. Hayley seems judiciously discriminated. We shall select a short passage.

‘Mr. Hayley seems to have taken Pope for his model, not with the design of emulating, but of approaching him in a nearer degree than any of his predecessors or contemporaries. Like that great master, he has been minute in his attention to cadences, pauses, and the charms of modulation. But his sentiments are too much expanded, when they ought to be condensed. His amplification is not without magnificence; but he amplifies when a judicious and striking

contraction is necessary. Not satisfied with presenting a combination of ideas, in one advantageous light, he goes on enlarging, until its original vigour is impaired, and the languor of the poet and that of the reader become reciprocal. Yet, even here, he has the merit of displaying elegance and grace in his excursions; but he is elegant without strength, and graceful without precision. Poetry too diffused, like empire too extended,

“ Exchanges solid strength for feeble splendour. ”

‘ His imagery is judicious and sometimes lofty, but it wants those vivifying sparks of genius that brighten into a blaze of enthusiastic admiration for the poet. He is without vehemence and impetuosity, but he is also without inequality and roughness. The creative faculty is not to be traced in his works, but he has made his muse subservient to the noblest purposes; and the name of Hayley will be remembered with honour, while polite literature, morality, and taste shall continue to be cultivated, practised and admired.’ P. 452.

Of Mr. Pratt, the panegyric is laboured, and, we think, overstrained. Nothing but excellence is to be found. Our opinion has been often different; but, if his ‘ life be distinguished by an uniform practice and support of the most amiable qualities,’ if ‘ his disposition to benevolence keep pace with his beautiful descriptions of it, in a full tide of good offices to the unfortunate,’ we will restrain every deduction from his merit as an author, and join in the praise of his kindness, his humanity, and his charity.

The life of Dr. Harrington is highly laboured, and of course a favourable representation. That of Dr. Currie, in a humbler line, appears to approach nearer to the truth.—Of the duke of Bedford, the account is flattering, and the subject of religion kept from our view. Some other errors are touched with too light a hand; but the most striking trait in the picture is his agricultural attempts.—Of Mr. Cowper, we can say little, and shall only transcribe one pleasing copy of verses not before published.

‘ The poplars are fell’d, and adieu to the shade,
And the whispering sound of the cool colonnade;
The winds play no longer, and sing in their leaves,
Nor the Ouse, on its surface, their image receives.

‘ Twelve years had elaps’d since I last took a view
Of my favourite field, and the place where they grew;
When, behold, on their sides, in the grass they were laid,
And I sat on the trees under which I had stray’d.

‘ The blackbird has sought out another retreat,
Where the hazels afford him a screen from the heat;
And the scene where his notes have oft charm’d me before,
Shall resound with his smooth-flowing ditty no more.

' My fugitive years are all hasting away,
And I must myself lie as lowly as they,
With a turf at my breast, and a stone at my head,
Ere another such grove rises up in its stead.

' The change both my heart and my fancy employs;
I reflect on the frailty of man and his joys;
Short liv'd as we are, yet our pleasures, we see,
Have a still shorter date and die sooner than we.' P. 541.

The life of lord Kenyon, we think just, and properly discriminated: that of Mr. Hastings—the last in the volume—is too short; but it is written with care and propriety, guarded seemingly with no common anxiety for approbation.

ART. III.—*The Trident; or, the National Policy of naval Celebration: describing a Hieronauticon, or naval Temple, with its Appendages; proposing a periodical Celebration of naval Games, and, on occasion of Victories of the first Magnitude, the granting of Triumphs: these Works and Institutions being intended to foster the rising Arts of Britain into a full Maturity, and a successful Rivalship with those of Rome and Greece; and to keep alive, and in full Lustre, to the latest Generations, the present heroic Spirit of the British Navy. By a private Gentleman. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

PATRIOTISM and benevolence, unaccompanied by enthusiasm, we rarely encounter. An ardent ambition to extend the glory of their country—to stimulate valor, science, and art—to promote industry, and nourish genius—often actuates, and sometimes deludes, artists, private gentlemen, writers, and reviewers.

We applaud the *motives* which, in his title-page, this writer expresses. The profits of his work, and of an exhibition of drawings (of which some are already executed by the marine painter, Anderson—the architect, Gandy; and by the late Mr. Hamilton, and by Mr. Stothard, historical painters), are destined to increase the funds of the Marine Society. As the drawings are not before us, we shall leave the *artist* unalarmed by any remarks which might spontaneously have arisen; principally directing our views to the fabric of the *writer*, which we shall examine with the attention due to a national object.

Educated by the muses to admire—

'The princely dome, the column, and the arch,
The breathing marbles, and the sculptur'd gold';

we lament that the public edifices of Britain should so imperfectly display the magnificence of an opulent and enlightened nation.

Among various designs lately submitted to public inspection, for commemorating the unrivaled achievements of our naval heroes, we have remarked none distinguished by grandeur of effect, or commendable for purity of taste.

A monumental structure worthy the fame of those deceased—to whom we owe an endless debt of gratitude—might afford ample scope for the talents of existing artists, and impress future ages with emulative veneration.

Accident, and the pleasure resulting from the exercise of invention, has given birth to the designs of the author of *The Trident*, who is no professional architect, whose reading in the science is confessedly limited, but whose eager spirit aspires to attain architectural novelty.

His preface enters abruptly into the subject of *isolated columns*. Arguments in favour of a variation from the ancients, by adopting *two socles* (plinths) under the pedestal, in order to afford a widely extended base, appear to us unnecessarily labored.

The most approved writers on architecture consider the pedestal itself as a *separate body*, 'having no more connexion with the order than as an attic, a basement, or any other part with which it may, on some occasions, be accompanied.' The fancy of this writer for his super-added *socle* may be indulged—'*quando egli è fatto con ragione e con proporzione all' altre parti.*'

Such a variance from the Greek style, in a work intended for duration, seems not unfavorable to stability, or to the general effect of the composition, if adequate skill be directed to the distribution of other principal and subordinate parts.

'*Non è vietato all' architetto partirsi alcuna volta dall' uso commune, perchè tal variazione sia GRAZIOSA et abbia del NATURALE.*'

The author now erects an isolated column (more than three hundred feet high) in the Greek style, on double socles. At the centre and angles of these socles, he places frustums (portions) of other vast columns, which are intended to 'become no insignificant *towers or temples*,' and to be furnished with altars and statues.

Unassisted by drawings, and relying alone on our powers of imagination, we must give momentary stability to ideal

edifices; and, as we create, offer our remarks on these fancy-formed fabrics.

The preface is followed by a poetical *invocation* and *dedication*. The address to his majesty we select as a specimen:

‘ And Thou, who sitt’st on mighty Alfred’s throne,
And call’st him ancestor—O splendid claim !
Whose naval forests cast so broad a shade
Where Alfred’s sacred acorns first were sown ;
Whose flag, with glory’s golden beams, on fire,
Bold Suffrein aw’d near Ceylon’s spicy groves ;
Then blaz’d refulgent on Columbia’s wave,
When Gallic heroes, with De Grasse, their chief,
Were captive led in happy Rodney’s train,
Rodney, by whom at once three hostile flags
Were borne in triumph to proud Albion’s shore !
And still, with glory’s flame more fervid glow’d,
When vent’rous Brest, and Lagos’ lofty towers,
When sullen Camperdown and ancient Nile,
Amaz’d, beheld thy thunderbolts of war,
Howe, Jervis, Duncan, Nelson, strike the foe ;
To Thee, this work I dedicate ; design’d
To move the generous, the brave, the wise,
And all whose bosoms burn with British fire,
Thy navy’s founder, and the first who tore
From brow of Dane, the naval victor’s crown,
And placed it on his own, Alfred the Great
To celebrate ; and those heroic men,
Who in his glorious nautic steps have trod :
But Him, O high-enthroned prince, nor muse,
Nor muse-inspired man, have need to urge
Albion’s Hieronauticon to rear,
Him, in whose veins the blood of Alfred flows !’ P. 2.

This ‘volunteer architect’ is frequently ambitious, among other buildings, to ‘*build the lofty rhyme*.’ His attempt to improve the well-known strains of ‘Rule, Britannia,’ we shall appreciate in its place.

We quote the subjects proposed in the introduction.

‘ Alfred the founder of the British navy—a column of naval celebration the wish of the public—the wise policy of gratifying that wish—public works should produce moral effects—example of Greece—Pericles—Olympic games—their happy effects—wisdom of the early popes—Britain, by encouraging the arts, may rival antiquity—sagacity of Iphitus—his example worthy of imitation—monuments not effective without festivals—Bay of Biscay, St. Vincent, Camperdown, and the Nile—a partial adoption of the Grecian games has already benefited this country essentially—the wise policy of naval games and of triumphs—prudence of Solon and Lycurgus—West’s panegyric on the Olympic games.’ P. 5.

To accommodate with convenience the motley groups issuing from *twenty-two chapters*, alike prolific, our own edifice ought to be, beyond what we can allow it, enlarged. Yet our *curious* readers will be amused while we, with difficulty, attempt to explore this labyrinth of patriotism.

That a national monument, recording the prowess of our navy, should be consecrated to its *general* glory rather than to the events of a single war—that the charges of such an erection should be defrayed by the *public*, *not* by individual contributions—we think a proposal highly judicious.

The author is 'feelingly alive' to the interests of the fine arts, as this passage evinces:

'But the comprehensive mind will grasp another cause for executing the projected work in a manner the most grand. When Britain beholds her rival, with as much policy as pride, arraying herself in the rich spoils of ravaged Italy; and, by her inestimable gallery of the Tuilleries, and her fifteen other rich collections deposited in her departments, manifesting an ambition to render her whole territory a school of the fine arts, and contriving the most captivating allurements for drawing thither all the genius of Europe; Britain has indeed a cause for alarm. If therefore Britain find not the means to attach to her own soil her native genius; if she strike not out, on a scale worthy of herself, encouragement to her own artists, she must of necessity see them emigrate, to swell the triumphs of her more politic rival. If in our future rivalry with France—a rivalry that must henceforward call forth all our faculties—we mean not that she shall acquire the ascendant, we must recollect, that the first constituent in national greatness, is elevation of mind and dignity of soul; and that those sentiments are cultivated to the highest advantage, by constant addresses to that faculty within us, which is peculiarly conversant with those qualities that are the high ornaments of man. It is the imagination which lifts the man of genius above the man of ordinary standard; the hero above the mere man of courage; in short, it is imagination which, in an eminent degree, constitutes the difference between greatness and mediocrity in men and in nations. Here is the foundation in our nature, for the high importance, in a national view, of the fine arts. Had the small states of Greece been as destitute of a taste for the fine arts as the vast Persian empire, the laurels of Marathon had never encircled the brow of Miltiades! Even in a commercial view, it is our policy to cherish the arts with a warm and fostering hand, as hath been abundantly proved, by the rapid improvements in our pottery, and a great variety of our manufactures, since the establishment of the Royal Academy; improvements which gave them a decided preference in every foreign market.

'What the fine arts alone had long done for modern Rome in her state of degradation, is known to every traveler, and is full of admonition, even to statesmen whose minds soar not above political arithmetic. But when the degree in which the authority of ancient Rome was established over the minds of other nations, in consequence of

the magnificence she derived from the fine arts, is duly regarded by the philosophic statesman, he will be more inclined to build his fame on a patronage of art, under the peaceful olive, than on the doubtful recourse to arms, in any case not of imperious necessity.' p. 7.

The British merchant will scarcely admit that the force of imagination has so eminently contributed to national opulence: he will perhaps insist, not unreasonably, on the force of unremitted industry and accurate calculation.

To their games the author principally attributes the superiority of the Greek nations, in arms, arts, and literature; and hence presumes to recommend to us similar institutions.

Against the policy of this measure, we adduce a recent example:—that indiscriminating mania for antique usages, which accompanied the ferocious revolution of France, has terminated in an accumulation of incongruities, not less ridiculous to the eye of taste, than revolting to the feelings of humanity.

Difference of climate, religion, and government—unnumbered accidents, in the lapse of ages, perpetually arising to modify human nature—must occasion equivalent changes in those institutions which, at various periods, are best adapted to promote the greatest practicable felicity and splendor of nations.

In works of art, among other excellencies, although the Greeks and Romans assuredly offer us examples for emulation, a mixture of ancient and modern *costumi* is not less tasteless and absurd. Institutions accommodated to Athens are ridiculous in London:—‘*Hic segetes, illic,*’ &c.

‘Racing institutions’ may have improved the breed of British horses; but such accidental similarities neither authorise a general imitation of ‘*Olympic games,*’ nor imply that our brave sailors would be more effectually educated by the parade of a Naumachia, than by the well-rewarded exertions of actual service. Royal approbation, thanks from an imperial parliament, a pension, a title, national monuments to deceased valour, and, above all, the gratitude of their countrymen, will be ever sufficient, we trust, to awaken the exertion and crown the toils of our naval defenders, without the mimic pageantry of obsolete festivals. Our marine dominion has been gradually extended by other aids. We disapprove this sentiment:

‘After all that art and expence can effect, cold and lifeless must be that celebration of national conflicts, heroic deeds, and glorious victories, which hath not for its essence the assembling of a people, exciting their enthusiasm, rousing them to animated action, and to an expression of their common feeling, by the exertion of their united voice.’ p. 14.

The 'vital part,' however, of the design, is the establishment of triennial naval games. The opinions which we have expressed must not disappoint our readers: they shall be rapidly exercised in the gymnasium, and enjoy a transient view of the games and triumphs. The principal buildings must be first examined.

Justice to the author obliges us to give an extensive introductory extract, which explains *his* ideas.

'With regard to the species most proper on the occasion, the obelisk, the pyramid, the pantheon, and the column, were severally considered. The first wants dignity; the second is deficient in taste and other requisites; the third, indeed, has dignity and taste, and withal grandeur and magnificence; but it is not sufficiently lofty, and the converging outlines of its dome are all softly-yielding curves, receding from every wind, as seeking tranquillity and repose; whereas the majestic column lifts to the very clouds his towering head, to hold sublime converse with the storm—nurse of naval hardihood! and to survey the islands, continents, and oceans around.

'To unite, therefore, the essential properties of these two species of edifice, with others which have not yet entered into the composition of any building, the author has adopted a form, which, in its successive terraces, has somewhat of the pyramidal principle of the temple of Belus at Babylon; while its apartments, within those terraces, give it all the advantages of a banqueting palace, a theatre, a temple, and a national gallery for statuary and painting.

'By thus combining the properties of the temple and the column, each part augments the grandeur of the other; by means of the terraces and the pedestal, the very base of the column is at an elevation of one hundred and eighty-eight feet from the ground; and then, by surmounting all below with a column correspondent to such a socle, a temple, far surpassing in magnitude the proudest works of antiquity, is produced; while, by means of the two terraces, forming a double socle of a very extended ground line, the column, high as it is raised, has not that unsupported, tottering appearance, which, to the eye of taste, is observable in all isolated columns which rest on a mere pedestal; for, when columns are diverted from their original office, of collectively supporting porticos, or other massive parts of buildings, which appear by their weight to pin them steadily to the ground, and are reared high into the air, it appears to the author that they require, in order to produce an idea of their stability, not only the additional substance given them by the ancient architects, but likewise an outspreading socle; which, as a part of the edifice, may furnish to the eye a base correspondent to the loftiness of the superstructure.

'From what has been said, it will appear that, to call the edifice we speak of, a naval pillar, or a column of naval celebration, would give of it but a very inadequate idea; and the author should not easily be reconciled to any denomination, that necessarily excluded the idea of its grand columnar feature. He has therefore ventured upon a new compound term, borrowed from the Greek, not only for the sake of the well-sounding of the word, but to avoid the coupling to-

gether of two parts of speech for a name to the building he has designed: he calls it the Hieronauticon; or naval temple.' p. 25.

The principle of our architect is to render every decoration appropriate to the intent of the edifice, 'NAUTICITY.'

'The only limits he knows to that attention, are those which should guard an architect from pedantry, or from sacrificing any legitimate beauty or perfection of general architecture.' p. 27.

After this declaration, we scarcely expected the invention of *nautic orders* of architecture. The alterations are principally in the capitals of the columns. On these innovations, we shall borrow the censures of the immortal Reynolds:

"The sound rules of the Grecian architecture are not to be lightly sacrificed. A *deviation* from them, or even an *addition* to them, is like a deviation or addition to or from the rules of other arts,—fit only for a GREAT MASTER, who is thoroughly conversant in the nature of man, as well as all combinations in his own art."

We will not determine that the architectural wing of this *great master* is unequal to a flight so daring, until we have criticised his drawings: yet, to alter a single member in an established order of architecture, we deem as hazardous an attempt, as to introduce new words into the languages of antiquity, or alter *their* construction.

A *naumachia*, with the appendages of cars, chariots, and barges, first appears:

'These barges and land carriages requiring, when not in use, a place of security, it is proposed that, at the landing place of the *naumachia*, where the procession by water is to terminate, and the ceremony by land is to commence, a suitable building for their reception shall be erected, one end of which should project into the water for receiving the barges; and the other end be on the dry land, for reception of the cars and the chariots. For this purpose, it is recommended to adopt the model of Inigo Jones's Tuscan temple, on the plan of which he built the church of Covent-garden in London. There is not only, in this design, the greatest simplicity and plainness, consistent with good taste; but the superior width of the central intercolumniation of the portico, gives it a complete adaptation to the intended purpose; the principal barge and the principal car occupying the central interval, and the inferior vehicles filling the smaller intervals at the sides.

'Suffice it to say, that, for our purpose, this temple must have a portico at each end; one pediment being adorned with a bas-relief of an antique galley, and the other of a triumphal car; but, correspondent with the Tuscan taste, we must here omit the fiery steeds, and every thing of decoration, contenting ourselves with the simplest forms of galleys and cars which antiquity can furnish.' p. 30.

.. This building is the *armieron*, 'the temple of the cars.'

In the centre of a square inclosure of *sixty acres*, at a competent distance from the water-side, stands the *HIERONAUTICON*. The inclosure itself forms the *gymnasium*: the entrances are four, one in the midst of each side.

'In the design that has been sketched out for these approach gates, there are a few niches, which, perhaps, might be well appropriated to the statues of surveyors of the navy who have been most eminent for genius, whose initiative services are highly conducive to naval success; and here also might be introduced medallions of dock-yard officers of distinguished merit; for without good ships, well equipped, in vain would our gallant seamen attempt to approach the pillar of renown.' P. 31.

On the north of the gymnasium, the curve of a *crescent*, 'the chord of whose arch is the entire side', is occupied with nine temples, and intervening groves of forest-trees. The centre temple is superior in magnitude and decoration, and has (with each alternate temple on either side) the modern addition of a dome. In these temples—'built after the best Grecian models'—the *nautic orders* are employed!

'In order to answer the end proposed by the nine temples, they should be properly tenanted and licensed for serving as taverns; and the friends of the honest tars of old England might as well drink their wine at the *Thalia*, as at the *Three Tuns*; sing a song at the *Polyhymnia*, as at the *Blue Posts*; and recount old stories of battles and sieges at the *Clio*, as at the sign of the *Centurion*; nor can it be supposed that the figures of the Grecian charmers, placed over the pediments, would prove less inviting signs, than *Saracen's Heads* or *Green Dragons*.' P. 33.

We pass through a triumphal arch to the Temple of Fame, which forms the principal member of the *edifice of approach*, called *THE VICTORIUM*.

To the triumphal arches of antiquity, the architect, on this occasion, states many objections, of which, in his own arch, he has 'steered clear.'

We must protect the ancient triumphal arches from the ravages of this volunteer. Because 'they support in a manner nothing,' they do not, therefore; 'appear to deviate from a law of nature.'

Nature often delights in curves, when no weight is incumbent: common eyes remark, with pleasure, the bendings of light branches, and the effect of their intersections.

Every unbiassed artist acknowledges the harmony and beauty of *three* arches skilfully combined. The tendency of this structure to increase the pomp of a procession, must be apparent on the slightest inspection of the arch of *Constantine*.

The sole object in these monuments was not the splendour of immediate victory. To transmit to future times the actions of conquerors, and to elucidate their history by bas-reliefs, this form of building afforded ample space.

At the angles of the *gymnasium*, in which we again wander, we discover four temples dedicated to the four winds—*Cæcias*, *Eurus*, *Libæ*, and *Sciron*:

‘ From the lower apartment in each of these temples, serving for porter’s lodges, you ascend to the circular story, which is covered with a dome supported by six columns of the *nautico-composite* order. The sides of the temples being open, show in the southern temples respectively, terrestrial globes, one having its north, and the other its south pole, pointing to the zenith; over which the insides of the domes exhibit the correspondent heavenly hemispheres. The terrestrial globes, as exposed to the weather, are cased and wrought in earthenware, and their delineations burnt in; the celestial globes above being executed in paint. In the other two temples are respectively seen a pile of various arms, and of emblems of navigation. Between column and column, a marine conch, or other large shell, is introduced as an ornament.’ p. 36.

A colonnade is continued from temple to temple, with niches, ‘ in the manner of the wall of the court of the temple of Antoninus and Faustina.’ Here are introduced—

‘ Naiades and Nereids, sea gods and goddesses, tritons, mermaids, marine centaurs, and other creatures of the imagination.’ p. 36.

This assemblage is further enriched by statues of midshipmen, lieutenants, and captains, arrayed in the costume of modern discipline.

‘ One naval youth bears in his hand, the model of a top-mast with a sail, as the emblem of practical seamanship and activity; the other, a book, as a symbol of science. One lieutenant holds a bridle, emblem of temperance; and likewise the cup and serpent of Hygieia, as symbols of health: the other lieutenant has in his hand a telescope and at his foot a cock, both emblems of vigilance. One captain bears an hour-glass, symbol of experience; the other holds in his hand a branch of the olive, the famed gift of Minerva to man, as the emblem of wisdom.’ p. 38.

Similar statues and emblems—ants, lions, eagles, bulldogs, balloons, and cables—complete, with vases, the ornaments of the façades.

Our volunteer architect has forgotten that ‘ the simplicity of the antique air and attitude—however much to be admired—is ridiculous when joined to figures in a modern dress.’

Arrived at the Temple of Fame, we cannot minutely describe the embellishments of the entablatures, the statues

introduced between the columns, or the bas-reliefs; in which the kind Nereids, *Thoë, Panope, Eupompe, Evagora*, and many nymphs, 'whose office it is to execute in subordinate capacities the pleasure of the trident-bearer,' are collected for the service of the nautic sons of Albion.

A bas-relief in one of the entablatures delighted us! *Milton* sits as judge between the 'competitors for the honour of having conferred on mankind the BLESSING of *gunpowder*!' The pretenders to this invention are carefully enumerated. After a serious hearing, *Milton*, like the consulted lawyers of our own times, leaves the subject in *glorious uncertainty*.

We are reminded by this architect, that our sublime poet 'was induced, in writing' his '*Paradise Lost*, poetically to ascribe this invention,' with that of cannon, to the *Devil*. Had he been aware of the sarcastic witticisms which we shall quote on this subject, he would have prevented a momentary smile at the absurdity of genius itself.

"N'a-t'on pas vu, chez le sage *Milton*,
D'anges ailés toute une légion
Rougir de sang les célestes campagnes,
Jeter au nez quatre ou cinq cens montagnes,
Et, QUI RIS EST, avoir de gros canon?"
Pardonnez-*lui* ce peu de fiction."

Other entablatures show the reputed inventors of the oar, the sail, the rudder, and the anchor: that of the south front of the triumphal arch traces the origin of the trident: the entablature of the north front

— 'is in honour of those men, in all ages, to whom geometry, astronomy and geography, and consequently navigation, as sciences, owe the greatest obligations, with particular reference to such as have eminently advanced the means of ascertaining the longitude.'
p. 51.

(To be continued.)

ART. IV.—*Commentaries on the History and Cure of Diseases.*
(Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 34.)

OUR author's next chapter, the thirty-fourth, is devoted to *crysipelas*; and on this subject we meet with a sound and judicious practice. Fever next commands our attention; for, as we have before observed, we pass the less important sections. On the subject of fever, in the desultory manner of *Dr. Heberden*, we cannot expect a continued system, or any extensive information. The antimonials, he thinks,

have no decided power of checking fever; and the bark, given largely in continued fevers, as was lately the practice, appears to him at least innocent, though not useful. Our author seems 'not aware that any important purpose can be answered by examining the *æces*.' This sentence ought to be noticed with disapprobation, and not suffered to become an axiom, as it might be, supported by authority so great as Dr. Heberden's. If, for instance, a patient be reported to have twenty motions in twenty-four hours, and the abdomen continue tense, will not the appearance of the discharge direct us? We shall, in such circumstances, often find it, not *æculent*, but mucous, or slimy and watery. Following the first idea only, we shall give restringents, when in reality effectual laxatives are required. Again:—The stools are unusually copious and frequent. If, on examination, we find them highly loaded with bile, we shall not dread the discharge, but allow it to continue, or even increase it. Once more:—When the stools change from a slimy appearance to a proper pullaceous consistence, it is time to abstain from laxatives, and to supply nourishment with caution. These are only a few of the circumstances which render our author's position highly dangerous. With respect to fever itself, we may shortly observe, that, *when formed*, medicine is unable to check it: in *forming*, it can often be prevented, leaving only a little languor during the first septenary period. The disease, undoubtedly, begins with great debility; and in sudden debility, thus superinduced, its essence consists. This, however, will not influence the practice, because, in the progress of fever, we can only guard against its effects. Of these, the chief is a disturbance of the balance of the circulation, producing, in consequence, congestions in some of the internal parts; often in the brain, more often, we think, in the liver. If Dr. Heberden have found large doses of bark innocent, it is only when the congestions have been obviated, or when evacuating medicines have been combined with it. In the higher classes, these congestions are not so considerable or conspicuous; and to these, perhaps, Dr. Heberden's observations have been confined. Even in intermittents, our author does not *violently* object to administering the bark during the fit. In the interval, he gives it early in the disease, and thinks little preparation by previous laxatives necessary; and the usual delays, in order to obtain a more perfect intermission, often injurious. Our own observations do not support this indiscriminating practice. In the fit, we have seen the bark evidently injurious: when given early, without previous evacuations of the stomach and bowels, the least inconvenience has been its failure.

Some judicious observations on hectic fever occur, and much attention is bestowed in distinguishing it from intermittent. Our author adds considerable doubts of the efficacy of the bark in mortifications. He concedes, however, that it does no injury.

In fistula ani, he admits a previous unhealthy state; and recommends, after the operation, issues or setons. We have lately learnt, and regret that it was *lately*, the propriety of correcting the general state of health previous to the operation.

On fluor albus, gleet, pregnancy, dropsy, and hæmorrhoides, the observations are often judicious. We may ask, however, are piles always hæmorrhoidal varices? or are they never caused by a salutary deposition? We believe, with our author, that they are more often a disease than a relief; but we suggest the question, as the prevalence of the belief of their salutary nature, and some singular facts recorded by able observers, seem to demand some attention. They certainly suppurate at times.

On the subject of hydrocephalus, Dr. Heberden strangely confounds the external with the internal. The distinction is of more importance, as they require very different treatment. The description of hypochondriasis is truly excellent; but the disease is, we think, improperly confounded with hysteria. The remarks, however, are elegant and judicious. Some parts we shall select. We wish our limits would permit us to transcribe the whole.

‘It is the condition of this malady to make the patient hopeless of a cure: but neither reason nor experience justifies his despair. For every part of the body, as far as our senses can judge, is whole and uninjured by his sufferings, great as they are; and the mind and animal powers are indeed oppressed, and cannot exert themselves, but their abilities are all entire. Hypochondriac and hysteric persons will look well, and grow fat with their complaints, and have now and then respites from them, in which they have all the sensations of most perfect health. It is well known, that some extraordinary works of genius have been the offspring of the intervals of melancholy. This malady will sometimes cease spontaneously; and I have known it leave a person, without any returns, for near twenty years. Now, what more encouraging circumstances can there be in an illness, than to know that the life is in no danger from it, that it is not incurable, and that, when it is removed, the patient will become as perfectly well as if he had never experienced it?’

‘In the cure of all chronical distempers, it is a matter of great importance to put the general health, by a proper regimen, into the best state possible; by which the self-correcting principle of an animal body will be enabled to exert itself with the greatest vigour; and this, in some diseases, is the whole of what can be done. This therefore must be carefully attended to in a languid state of spirits, by

avoiding all the general causes of ill health, together with all the particular ones before mentioned, which may be conjectured to have brought on, or to have aggravated this malady.

‘Evacuations are very ill borne in this disorder; but as it is usually accompanied with costiveness, we need not scruple to give occasionally three or four grains of Rufus’s pill, or a small portion of any other gentle aperient, so as just to procure one motion every day; for this will mitigate, or prevent, many of the bowel complaints. A gentle emetic may also be sometimes wanted, when the stomach is uncommonly loaded and sick. All further evacuations, and particularly bleeding, scarcely ever fail to heighten every symptom. It is so little in the power of any medicines to give the gout, and it is so uncertain whether the gout would take away the hypochondriac complaints (for in some persons I have known it constantly bring them on), that I think it nugatory to attempt a cure by giving any medicines which are supposed to create or to excite a fit. Bath waters, according to my experience, are at least useless, unless in some extraordinary disorders of the stomach; and the going thither, or a sea voyage, or foreign countries, can only be advisable when they will remove the patient from a scene of grief, or cares, or too much business. Sea bathing, and chalybeate waters, may be serviceable upon the same account; and may besides, in some cases, improve the general health. The gum-resins, and wild valerian root, and steel, have the credit of possessing a specific virtue in all maladies attributed to the nerves: my experience of them will not add much to their reputation. The nerves of the stomach and bowels have so great a dominion and controul over the whole nervous system, and these parts are so generally disordered in hypochondriac and hysteric patients, that, in my judgment, the best medicines will be such as correct their acidities, and are known by experience to be efficacious in recovering them to their proper strength and functions. This purpose is best brought about by the aromatic and bitter medicines, with which a small proportion of aperients may be joined when they are wanted. These may be given in pills, in drops, in tinctures, or infusions; and by this variety of forms, and by the small compass in which they may lie, they may easily be continued, as long as may be necessary, without becoming nauseous.

‘Many in a lowness of spirits are not indisposed to raise them by wine and spirituous liquors; and they are encouraged and pressed to do it by their well-meaning but ill-judging friends. No words can be too strong to paint the danger of such a practice in its proper colours. The momentary relief is much too dearly bought by the far greater languor which succeeds; and the necessity of increasing the quantity of these liquors, in order to obtain the same effect, irrecoverably ruins the health, and in the most miserable manner. If the anxiety of dejection become intolerable, and must have some present relief, it is better to seek it in opium, than in wine. A few drops of the tincture of opium, with, or without the tincture of asafoetida, or antimonial wine, would be a much safer cordial for the drooping spirits than spirituous liquors; and might be increased without equal danger of hurting the health, and without bringing on the same difficulty of ever leaving it off again. My experience has often taught

the, how safely, and consistently with business, a course of taking opium may be continued for a considerable part of a man's life; and how practicable it is to be weaned from the habit of it: while every body's experience must have shown them the danger of persisting in a course of drinking immoderately, and the almost impossibility of ever reclaiming a sot. P. 231.

The chapter on jaundice is peculiarly excellent and valuable. We shall select, as a specimen, the remarks on vomiting and purging in this disease.

‘Vomiting is commonly the next symptom which demands the physician's assistance. This seems to be an effort of nature to dislodge the stones; but it may be a question, whether it be such an effort as ought to be encouraged, or checked; for though on the one hand this violent concussion may force the stone back into the cystis, or forward into the duodenum, and so effect either a temporary relief or a perfect cure, yet it may be feared, if the stone be so fixed in the duct, as not to be easily moved, that the action of vomiting will lacerate the membranous duct, and be the cause of future mischief, as well as of present pain. Now, whether this fear be just, or groundless, can only be determined by experience; and by what I have observed of icteric cases, it has appeared to me, that a vomit excited, while the pain was intense, has rather quieted than aggravated it, and has never brought it on. But if we be secure of its doing no harm, there is so good a chance of its being beneficial, that, whether the patient have a vomiting, or not, it is a judicious practice to order an emetic, either at first, or as soon as the intenseness of the pain has been alleviated, and occasionally to repeat it. To excite a vomiting in this malady is much more easy than to stop it; and therefore it is always proper, and sometimes necessary, to order an opiate to be taken after a moderate number of strains have been procured, or if the sickness continue longer than usual.

‘Similar good effects may with reason be expected from purging medicines, by their increasing the natural motion of the intestines, and soliciting a greater flow of bile, as well as of all the other humours which are poured into them. Mercurial purges have been preferred by some practitioners: but there appears nothing in the known powers of mercury peculiarly useful in dislodging a biliary concretion; and the preference should be given to those purges which act with the most ease, and may be continued with the greatest safety. Such are the sea-water, the water of many purging springs, as also many of the neutral salts, dissolved either in water, or, if it can be borne, in a weak infusion of some bitter vegetable substance. These, as we know by abundant experience, may be taken for several months, either every day, or every other day, without palling the appetite, or exhausting the strength or spirits. But in some cases there may be reason for using other purgatives; and I have known a few grains of rhubarb, or one or two drams of tincture of senna, or of rhubarb, taken with advantage in a small draught of some moderately bitter infusion. The jaundice of infants and young children soon yields to a few purging medicines.

'If it happen that the jaundice is of itself attended with a purging, there may be nothing further necessary, than by gentle means to prevent its being excessive, and at the same time to strengthen the stomach by proper bitters.' P. 254.

We were particularly pleased with the remarks on ileus, which are highly judicious and satisfactory. What is observed of hernia, joined with ileus, and the necessity of considering them, in many instances, independent of each other, requires particular attention. The remarks on ileus, sometimes consisting in inverted—probably violent and irregular peristaltic—motion, and on the use of opiates, are highly satisfactory. In violent pain, we have often found it proper to check the spasm by free doses of opium, before we begin our purgative plan; and have not observed, when the pain has been relieved, that any disadvantage has arisen from the delay of the evacuations. Calomel, with the cathartic extract, has, in our opinion, increased the purgative power; to which may be added, that, from its weight, it eludes a common action of the stomach in vomiting, and sometimes seems, in the same way, to prevent the extract from being rejected. We may here shortly remark, that an inflammation of the peritoneum sometimes brings on symptoms nearly resembling ileus. The chief distinction arises from the pain being more general, the abdomen more uniformly tense and sore, without any relief by stools.

On the subject of madness, the observations merit attention. We shall transcribe a passage which we think correct and judicious; but which militates a little against the author's own opinions in other parts of the commentaries.

'It is an inveterate opinion, which my experience has uniformly contradicted, that madness is influenced by the moon. The gout is supposed to absorb other distempers, and to turn them so perfectly into its own nature, that no traces shall appear of any other malady beside the gout. I will not answer for the truth of this observation; but I make no doubt of my having observed some power of this kind in madness; upon the access of which I have remarked an extraordinary and immediate recovery of strength and health in one, who was languishing with extreme weakness consequent upon a fever. In another, who had every sign of a pulmonary consumption advancing fast to its last stage, madness came on, and presently made a cure of the consumption, of which I almost despaired by any other means.' P. 276.

Under the chapters of '*intestinorum dolores*,' '*lumborum dolor*,' and some others, the author is very usefully employed in tracing the source and discriminating the symptoms of the real complaint which occasions these indistinct feelings.

A useful volume may be written on such subjects by an experienced practitioner.

The chapter on '*ischuria*' contains some valuable observations. We have seen a case of this kind, in which all deception was carefully guarded against, continue six weeks; nor was there any vicarious discharge, till after three weeks, when a profuse perspiration came on, which lasted forty-eight hours. It ended happily. In old people, there is often a total and unconquerable palsy of the venal vessels, which, however, will sometimes yield to large doses of turpentine. This medicine the stomach will bear more easily, and in larger quantity, if mixed with honey, by melting over a slow fire. Cantharides we have never found active, except in the bladder.

On the subject of worms, the observations are unusually trifling. Dr. Heberden thinks there is no specific for worms; but medicines for this purpose may be often depended on, perhaps more securely than in other complaints. Helleboraster (bear's-foot) approaches near to a specific, in lumbrici; the male fern-root, followed by drastic purgatives, or even the rough raspings of pewter, in tænia; and clysters of asafœtida and oil, followed by aloëtic and mercurial purgatives, in ascarides. Under the head of *mammæ*, our author recommends, very strongly, extirpation of a schirrous or even of an ulcerated cancer. It certainly is often too long delayed. He might have added, to quiet many uneasy apprehensions, that a tumor, or even an abscess, from milk, has scarcely, in any instance, become cancerous.

The chapter on *menstrua* contains many curious and some useful observations on this discharge. We know not whether it may be accidental; but we think, within these few years, we have found it continue to a much more advanced period than in the earlier æras of our practice. In advanced life, the menses sometimes return profusely. This the author very properly ascribes to a disordered state of the uterus; but we have seen it occur in a solitary instance, as a useful discharge, or as an accidental hæmorrhage from any other part. Styptics and astringents Dr. Heberden thinks useless. They undoubtedly are so; and the bleeding is only checked by anodynes and refrigerants. The bleedings, in the last stage of hectic, we have seen relieved only by nitre. Chamomile flowers, in our author's opinion, seem to possess some specific powers as an emmenagogue.

Under the head of *meazles*, Dr. Heberden gives a history of the regular disease. The affection, when received, appears to produce the disease from ten to fourteen days after

its reception. There is reason to suspect, that, in the earlier stage, it is not remarkably infectious.

The chapter on the diseases of the eyes is interesting and amusing; but we find little addition to our practical knowledge. We shall select a peculiarly singular case of nyctalopia.

‘A man about thirty years old had in the spring a tertian fever, for which he took too small a quantity of bark, so that the returns of it were weakened without being entirely removed. He therefore went into the cold-bath, and after bathing twice he felt no more of his fever. Three days after his last fit, being then on board of a ship in the river, he observed at sun-setting, that all objects began to look blue, which blueness gradually thickened into a cloud; and not long after he became so blind, as hardly to perceive the light of a candle. The next morning about sun-rising his sight was restored as perfectly as ever. When the next night came on, he lost his sight again in the same manner; and this continued for twelve days and nights. He then came ashore, where the disorder of his eyes gradually abated, and in three days was entirely gone. A month after, he went on board of another ship, and after three days’ stay in it, the night-blindness returned as before, and lasted all the time of his remaining in the ship, which was nine nights. He then left the ship; and his blindness did not return while he was upon land. Some little time afterwards, he went into another ship, in which he continued ten days, during which time the blindness returned only two nights, and never afterwards.

‘In the August following, he complained of loss of appetite, weakness, shortness of breath, and a cough: he fell away very fast, had frequent shiverings, pains in his loins, dysury, and vomitings; all which complaints increased upon him till the middle of November, when he died.

‘He had formerly been employed in lead-works, and had twice lost the use of his hands, as is usual among the workers in this metal.’
p. 334.

Palsy and apoplexy are considered at an unusual length; and the section contains a great number of curious and important facts. They are too miscellaneous and independent, however, to admit of abridgement; and we perceive none of such superior interest as to induce us to copy them. The whole may be read with advantage even by the experienced physician. As the cause of apoplexy has occasioned some discussion, we shall transcribe our author’s sentiments on the subject. They indeed differ, in a great measure, from our own; but this is no place for controversy. We may add, however, that we admit the cause of apoplexy proceeding from affections purely nervous, but think the cases of this kind comparatively few.

‘Theory may teach, but will find some difficulty in proving, that

Apoplexies must arise from a compression of the brain, owing either to a distension of the blood-vessels, or to extravasated blood from their rupture, and that the energies of the nerves can be deadened by no other cause beside fulness. 'The usual subjects of palsies, as before mentioned, do not favour this hypothesis; and the operation of several poisons in disturbing or annihilating the nervous functions can hardly be accounted for by such a theory: as little can it be reconciled with the gradual manner in which most palsies, and many apoplexies, are found to advance, and with the strong disposition to relapses in those who have been emaciated and broken by many former fits. Some palsies must be owing to other causes besides fulness; and whatever these causes be, they may be the only ones of most palsies. A rupture of some blood-vessels in the brain may be the origin of some apoplexies, but probably of few; because these can hardly escape being instantly fatal; and we know that there is a far greater proportion which do not end in present death. Some practical authors tell us they have been glad of finding a fever in a paralytic; or desirous of exciting one. This but ill accords with the evacuating, and cooling regimen. But I must own that I have no faith at all in this doctrine; for according to all my experience, the more fever there is, the worse it always fares with the patient, in every external and internal ail; and the more natural the pulse is, the more hopes there will be of a prosperous event.' p. 354.

If there be any disposition to vomit, it is assisted by a little carduus tea; but emetics are not recommended. What relates to warm and cold bathing, we shall select without a comment.

'When the patient is judged to be pretty well out of the reach of present danger, he must in the next place be assisted in freeing himself from the several disagreeable reliques of the former attack, and in preventing a return. For these purposes a journey to Bath is generally proposed; about which physicians seem to be divided in their opinions; some thinking, that the drinking and bathing at Bath help to recover paralytics, while others are persuaded that they are the ready means of turning a palsy into an apoplexy. If I were to judge from my own experience, I should say that the Bath waters do neither good nor harm to these patients; some of whom gradually recover while they stay at Bath; and others suffer a fresh attack and die there; just as they would in any other place. I therefore cannot advise Bath; but if it be desired by the invalids themselves, or any of their friends, there is no reason to hinder their going thither. There is not much more to be said in favour of the cold bath. Out of a great number of persons, whom I have known to use sea-bathing for several successive seasons, and long courses of cold bathing in weakness and giddiness left by palsies, some have thought them prejudicial, and more have thought them useful: but from all their accounts I have concluded, that cold bathing is innocent, or in a small degree useful. So that the chief reason against advising, or allowing it, is that paralytics are liable to relapses of their disorder, let them do

what they will; and if any fresh access, or aggravation of their symptoms should happen at the time of using the cold bath, or soon after, it would of course be charged, though very unjustly, to the bathing.' p. 357.

Opium is allowed in paralytic complaints, to conquer restlessness or pain, and with great propriety. A curious case of catalepsy is subjoined.

Under the title of '*pectoris dolor*,' our author treats of some anomalous pains in the breast, and particularly of *angina pectoris*; but, respecting this last complaint, he gives no additional important information. We lately saw a very striking instance of it in an elderly woman, relieved apparently by a fit of gout; but the spasms returned with a violence truly alarming, and yielded seemingly to anti-spasmodics: they disappeared without any gout supervening. We have seen more than one instance, in which the complaint has passed off completely—we dare not say that it was from the efficacy of medicine. A short case of *morbus pedicularis*, we shall select.

'1762, Aug. 23. I was this day informed by sir Edward Wilmot, that he had seen a man who was afflicted with the morbus pedicularis. Small tumors were dispersed over the skin, in which there was a very perceptible motion, and a violent itching. Upon being opened with a needle they were found to contain insects in every respect resembling common lice, excepting that they were whiter. Sir Edward Wilmot ordered a wash, consisting of four ounces of spirits of wine, four ounces of rectified oil of turpentine, and six drams of camphor. The day following he told me all the insects had been killed on being touched with this liquor, and that all the itching had immediately ceased.' p. 369.

Of consumption, Dr. Heberden speaks somewhat at large, and to the purpose. He is not without suspicion of its being infectious to bedfellows, and those much confined with the person affected*; and, in the treatment, relies largely on the mild plan of diet and moderate warmth. The distinction of mucus and pus is, he thinks, precarious; and the difficulty of breathing seems at no time to prevent, in his opinion, the employing a decoction of bark. He conceives, that, by prudent precautions to keep the disease in moderate subjection, the disposition may wear off. The chapter on the *colica Pictonum* contains a very accurate description of the disease, which our author supposes, perhaps without

* Not to excite unnecessary apprehensions, we may add, that our observations coincide with the author's; that, from long and very close confinement with a consumptive person, there are suspicions of its being communicated: but in such instances, unless where from relationship the constitutions may be similar, the communicated disease has never, under our observation, been fatal.

sufficient reason, to be owing exclusively to lead. We remember a painter, who had had frequent attacks, cured by keeping his hands very carefully clean, and eating every morning, before he began his work, some fat bacon. The danger of tinned and glazed vessels is repeated, certainly without foundation. A curious, but not a sufficiently discriminated, case of *macule purpureæ* follows.

Rheumatism is the subject of extensive remark; and Dr. Heberden seizes, with peculiar propriety, the near relation of this complaint to palsy. He thinks bleeding not of very essential service; copying, perhaps, from the events in more polished life, where the constitutions are less robust. We used to suppose that sometimes bleeding rendered the effect of blisters more certain, when premised just before their application; but, such is the change of seasons and constitutions, that we seldom see very acute rheumatisms, or violently inflammatory peripneumonies. Mercurials, Dr. Heberden thinks, may be injurious, as a mercurial course has brought on rheumatism. It is, however, that mercurial course, whose proper operation has been suppressed by cold. With antimonials, when the disease is protracted, before it assumes the chronic form, we think mercury has been useful; and we have suspected, that mercurial purgatives, interposed, have shortened the complaint. Of the utility of Dover's powder, our author speaks also with hesitation, perhaps from employing it in too small doses. A scruple, with five grains of salt of harts-horn, forms a very valuable remedy. We may just mention, that we sometimes meet with a most intractable complaint, perhaps referable to this head, viz. violent pains in the feet or ankles. It has frequently baffled every attempt.

In strangury, Dr. Heberden thinks camphor useless, and prefers an opiate clyster; but the latter is, to many, an unpleasant remedy; and, in large doses with opium, camphor very frequently succeeds.

From the chapter on *struma*, we shall copy some facts which we think of importance.

'The origin of this mischief in these adults was probably to be found in the unwholesomeness of their diet, or situation. The use of a very hard water was suspected to have made one of them scrofulous; for he began to be so after using it constantly for a few years, and continued so as long as he used it, but upon leaving it off, all the scrofulous appearances left him. It is most probably owing to some bad quality of the water, that swellings of the throat are endemic in some parts of England, and notoriously among the inhabitants of the Alps; though I by no means think it owing to the use of snow-water, to which it has been attributed: for I believe on account

of its great purity this would be one of the best remedies they could employ *.' P. 419.

The account of the 'small-pox' contains some curious and valuable facts. Dr. Heberden thinks that inoculation will not always secure the patient from having the small-pox afterwards, if the eruption have been imperfect without maturation. The instance, however, subjoined, explains the difficulty; for, in this case, it is evident that the inoculation did not succeed, and the eruption was *not* the consequence of the operation. A person in the small-pox does not infect another till at least after two days from the appearance of the eruption.

'An excruciating pain in the loins has never failed to be succeeded by a bad small-pox; and the more violent the pain, the greater has been the danger: it is much safer to have it between the shoulders; but it is safest to have none in any part of the back.

'Excessive vomiting for the whole time before the eruption is seldom followed by a mild disease; and if the vomiting be continued after the eruption is completed, the patient's life is in great danger, even though the small-pox be not confluent, as I have seen more than once.

'It is very common to have convulsions precede a mild small-pox in children, and the same has been known in some adults with as prosperous an event.

'The variolous infection does some force to the vessels, which supply the menstrual discharge in women; and in the worst sort of small-pox this evacuation has come on out of its regular course two days before the small-pox has begun to shew itself, and has continued to flow in an excessive manner. It has sometimes appeared before its regular time, together with the eruption. But what I have more usually observed is, that this uterine flux in almost all female patients has begun as soon as the eruption was completed, and it has continued from one day to five. This discharge, though sometimes much greater than the natural one, does not seem to check the progress of the small-pox, nor to sink the patient's strength, and therefore very little pains need be taken to stop it, even though we had any ready and innocent way of doing it.

'That very formidable symptom, bloody urine, has come on about the fifth day from the first sickness; the eruption in the mean time has hardly risen above the skin, chiefly shewing itself in purple spots

* 'The inhabitants of Rheims had been so afflicted with strumous diseases, that they maintained an hospital for the sole purpose of curing such patients. They then made use of no other water than what they had from wells. After a machine was constructed, which brought the water from a neighbouring river, and distributed it into all quarters of the city, it was observed that scrofulous disorders were become less common: in the space of thirty years the number of these patients were reduced to one half of what it had usually been; and it continued to decrease so fast, as to give occasion for thinking, that the greater part of the revenues of the hospital might be applied to other purposes.—*Soc. Royale de Médecine*, vol. ii. *Hist.* p. 280.'

and blotches, and resembling variolous pimples only in very few places. The stools are likewise bloody; the very tears have been like *lotura carniū*; and if a small scratch has any where been made in the skin, the blood has for many hours continued to ooze out, and has hardly been stopped. This hopeless state has been terminated by death in three or four days after the eruption; nor have I remarked one exception. But the urine may be discoloured in the small-pox, and have a hue as dark as coffee, even where there is no reason to suspect its proceeding from gravel; and yet afford no ground for alarm, if not joined with other bad symptoms. In a middling sort of small-pox, the urine became black on the fourth day of the eruption, and continued so for four days. In another, the same black urine began on the second day of the sickness, having a sediment like coffee-grounds for two days. Both these patients went on prosperously, without any other bad or unusual symptom. The pustules have sometimes shewn themselves not very different from their general appearance in a middling sort; but the interstices have been filled with small round purple spots, and the distemper has been fatal on the third day of the eruption.' P. 438.

The fetus has, in no case that occurred to our author, appeared to receive the variolous infection; and some singular circumstances, respecting successive crops, are added. In an epidemical ague, on the appearance of the small-pox fever, the ague ceased, and always 'returned after the small-pox had terminated, and *one or two purges had been taken.*' It has been observed, that active purges will again bring on intermitting paroxysms; and it would be important, could we know if they returned where the evacuation was omitted. A history of the chicken-pox is inserted; but we have already received it from our author in the Medical Transactions.

Some judicious remarks on diseases of the stomach, with three cases of a diseased spleen, and one of diseased pancreas, occur in this volume. With respect to the first, we find no particular plan of relief. Columbo is not mentioned, though of great service in stomachs subject to acidity. It is singular, that, because acids are thrown up, absorbents are considered to be the only remedies, without reflecting on the changes which take place in the stomach; and that, though acids be present, the complaints are not always owing to them. A red herring will often give heart-burn. We have known broiled bacon do the same; but this kind of disease cannot be owing to acids. Mucilaginous substances, which certainly inviscate, though they do not change, acrid matters, will more frequently succeed. Lime-water seems chiefly serviceable by dilution; for it can absorb but a very small proportion of acid. The cases of diseased spleen, &c. offer no decisive characteristic symptoms: they are chiefly such as attend impaired digestion, and broken constitutions.

Vertigo, vomiting, and loss of voice (*var*), complaints of the urinary organs and uterus, conclude the volume: they contain some curious observations and judicious reflexions, but offer nothing that we can with propriety enlarge on. Upon the whole, we consider this volume as a very valuable publication, meriting a particular attention from practitioners of every age. The best will be informed by it; and the younger, if not too much affected by the languor already noticed, will learn to correct their eagerness, and the forward, often the injudicious activity derived from an early confidence in the powers of medicine. The author himself expresses some surprise that he has not done more. On this subject, we ought not to dwell. The calm benevolence which soothes the evening of a well-spent life, beams in every line of the work; and all practitioners, if they cannot imitate our author's excellence, may, at least, express an eager wish that their 'last end may be like his.'

ART. V.—*Annals of the French Revolution; by A. F. Bertrand De Moleville, Minister of State. (Continued from p. 390 of our last Volume.)*

OUR last article upon this voluminous publication terminated with a history of the celebrated tumults of the twentieth of June; the neglect of Petion; the existing mayor of Paris, in the discharge of his duty; the inattention of the commandant of the national guard; the effeminate alarm of the king's ministers; and the resolution of the king himself, by which alone—or at least in conjunction with the efforts which Petion prevailed upon himself eventually to make in behalf of the royal family—the mob were persuaded to return home without having effected any serious mischief, independently of the absurd and outrageous mockery offered to the persons of the king and the dauphin. Petion, for his misconduct, was justly suspended in his office by a resolution of the department, confirmed by the royal signature. The act of suspension, however, was no sooner submitted to the national assembly, than it was taken off, and Petion restored to his former dignity. Our author, as may be expected, is in a violent rage against both Petion and the assembly, on this occasion; and exhibits, in his remarks upon the transaction, some portion of that partiality which pervades the greater part of his work, and will render it, without a perpetual caveat, a dangerous document for the future historian to consult. Like the lord-mayor of our own metropolis, in the riots before the last, Petion appears to have been, at first, culpably indolent, and inapprehensive of danger;

yet, from his subsequent conduct—and, more especially, the dexterity which he manifested in withdrawing the mob from the palace, and leaving the person of the king uninjured when entirely in his power—we must necessarily acquit him of all intentional treason. But what is M. Bertrand's account?—Alluding to the communication of the act of his suspension to the national assembly, he asserts—

“ It was heard by the assembly with the most indecent marks of anger and impatience, and the reader's voice was at times drowned by their murmurs. It was scarcely read through, when Petion appeared at the bar and pleaded his own cause, not from any occasion he had to defend it, for it was gained before he opened his mouth; but to revenge himself on the directory of the department, whom he accused, in almost every sentence, of prevarication, imposture, aristocracy, counter-revolutionary sentiments, &c. “ When I read this resolution,” said he, “ I shuddered with indignation, and my soul revolted against the treacherous hands that traced it. I should never have conceived that one of the best actions of my public life, one that leaves the most pleasing reflections on my mind, could have become a ground of persecution.” What a villain must he be, whose best action, on his own confession, was to have countenanced the outrages of the 20th of June! and what a heart must that be that had not more pleasing sensations than those communicated to it by the reflections created by that horrid day!” Vol. vii. p. 8.

A man must indeed be a skilful logician who can extract such a conclusion from such a speech. Petion does not confess that he *countenanced* the outrages of the twentieth of June; much less does he boast of such a *countenance* as his *best action*. He manifestly alludes to the dexterity with which he seduced the mob from the royal palace, liberated the king from their lawless power, and induced them to retire quietly to their own homes. That he was highly culpable in the outset of this extraordinary tumult, we have already admitted; but he still might contemplate the subsequent part of his conduct, as exhibiting *one of the best actions of his public life—as one that left the most pleasing reflections on his mind*.—Our author, indeed, exhibits the same intemperance in asserting that Petion had no occasion to defend himself, or to plead his own cause, since it was gained before he opened his mouth; for it is well known, and is afterwards allowed, by M. Bertrand himself, that the due form of law was at least adhered to; that the royal proclamation, and the defence of the accused, together with the necessary papers on each side, were referred to the commission of Twelve; and that the report was formally communicated by the *procureur-syndic* of the department. It is notorious that the party to which Petion had attached himself, and which was denominated the *Côté-gauche*, was more numerous in

the assembly than the opposite party of the *Côté-droit*; and we well know, from occurrences among ourselves, that, when a decision once becomes an affair of party, the man who belongs to the more powerful will have a strong chance of success: but the French revolution has furnished us with far more violent infringements upon the law, than the present case of Petion; and we cannot avoid thinking that M. Bertrand widely departs from the sober gravity of a historian, in asserting that his cause *was gained before he opened his mouth*.

Our author's remarks upon the absurd manifesto of the combined powers under the command of the duke of Brunswick, are more entitled to attention, and display a full knowledge of the subject.

' The manifesto of the powers at length appeared, and for a moment gave a pause to the manœuvres which agitated the capital. This manifesto, so much expected, was not that, the plan of which had been proposed by Mallet-du-Pan, and agreed to, but one drawn up by Dulimon, as dictated by the ministers of the emperor and king of Prussia; and the duke of Brunswick, who signed it as commander in chief, had not even been consulted upon it. The publication of it produced an effect the very reverse of what had been expected. All parties, some violent royalists excepted, were provoked at the boastings of the duke of Brunswick, or laughed at them. The factious did not fail to attribute to the suggestions of the king all the menaces respecting the safety of himself and his family, and thence concluded that his majesty was in correspondence with the enemies of the nation. How could it be expected that the threat of giving up Paris to be pillaged would have any effect upon the Jacobins, few of whom had any property there? Still less was it calculated to intimidate the brigands, who had flocked thither in such numbers, only in the hope of that very pillage, for which they would not have failed to join the Austrians and Prussians. It would have been less absurd, and more efficacious, to have threatened to level with the ground, in all the towns taken, the houses belonging to the presidents and principal speakers of the Jacobin clubs, and to give up to pillage all the apartments in which they were lodgers. Had a single example of this kind been made, it is probable that most of the Jacobins of the kingdom would have been turned into the streets.' Vol. vii. p. 83.

' The factious showed more ability in their choice of means to promote desertion in the foreign armies. They laid it down as a principle, "that desertion was but an honourable exercise of a natural right, when any one chose to leave a land of slavery, to take refuge in one of liberty: that free men were but of one country, and that there could exist no obligation on the part of a man deprived of his natural rights; towards him who had deprived him of them." On this principle the assembly, on the 2d of August, in consequence of Guadet's report, passed the following decree:

" 1. Every officer or soldier of the enemy's army, who, desiring to range themselves under the banner of liberty, shall appear at a mili-

ary post, or before one of the constituted authorities, as a French citizen, shall be received with fraternal affection; shall be presented, as a sign of his adoption, with a cockade of three colours; shall enjoy a pension for life of an hundred livres, of which one quarter shall be always in advance, and shall be admitted to take the civic oath. The pension, upon their decease, shall be continued to their widows.

" 2. Those who would not contract a military engagement, shall not be forced to it; those who chuse it, shall be admitted to what army they please, and shall receive the ordinary fee upon enlisting.

" 3. Lists shall be formed of foreigners in the service of France, and the pensions of those who die shall be continued to the survivors, till the latter shall have annuities of five hundred livres each.

" 4. The widows of such military persons will receive the annual pension of one hundred livres, but will not share the benefits of the tontine.

" 5. Those who do not take a military engagement, shall retire into the interior parts of the kingdom; those who shall serve, will have the same reward for brilliant actions as French citizens."

' Could there be a more alluring bait for all such soldiers as wanted spirit, were disgusted with service, dissatisfied with their officers or their pay, than the certainty of being paid, and in advance, without having any thing to do, or being exposed to any danger? And so it happened; for the consequence of this decree was, that desertions from the Austrian and Prussian armies were very much increased, whereas the duke of Brunswick's manifesto made no impression on the French soldiers.' Vol. vii. p. 96.

The manifesto of the duke of Brunswick was followed, a few days afterwards, by a declaration of the French princes in the combined army—a paper which is even at present but little known to the world, and which is given at large in the appendix to this work, and marked No. XXX: its length prevents us from translating it: but the opposite spirit with which it is composed seems to prove obviously that the French princes themselves were fearful of the effects of the bombast and idle menaces of the former. This second paper—or rather *essay*, for its length entitles it to such a classification—is designed, therefore, to soften the animosities of their countrymen, to calm the general agitation that prevailed, and to intermix the benedictions of the princes with the curses of the duke. This artificial and wheedling publication, however, had as little effect on the infuriate temper of the French people, as the outrageous declaration of the combined courts; and it is difficult to affirm which principally contributed to precipitate the catastrophe of the king's death—the very fact which both were equally intended to prevent. The abrupt retreat of this mighty armament, after all its frantic menaces, is to the present moment as extraordinary and unaccountable as that of the Gauls from the Roman Capitol, in the dictatorship of

Camillus. The king of Prussia appears to have been the first person in the confederate council who was dissatisfied with the aspect of affairs, and especially with the result of the negotiation with Dumourier for the exchange of prisoners; by which it was conceded to the latter, that all emigrants, as being Frenchmen in arms against their own country, should be excluded from its benefit. Alluding to this extraordinary concession, our author thus continues the history of this celebrated transaction—

‘ Meanwhile the king of Prussia, finding that the negotiation which he had opened with Dumourier was not attended with the issue he had expected, and that the national convention had already decreed the abolition of the monarchy, and proclaimed the republic, his majesty thought it necessary to delay no longer taking a final determination; and he called a council at Hana, to which the principal generals of all the armies were summoned. General Kalkreuth, who spoke first, stated the bad condition of the cavalry, and observed, that to attack the French army, it would be necessary to march to the right and pass the Aube, in order to come upon the left flank of the enemy; a movement that could not be made without still farther endangering the communications, which were already but too much exposed.

‘ The duke of Brunswick and the other Prussian generals urged the bad state of the army, the difficulty of subsisting them, the obstructions thrown in the way of prompt movements and hazardous enterprises, and the imprudence and danger of exposing to the uncertain issue of a battle an army so weakened by disease, and whose communication with Verdun, the only place from which they could obtain provisions, was threatened.

‘ The French generals, and particularly mareschal de Broglie and mareschal de Castries, opposed these objections with all the energy excited by the situation of the royal family, and an ardent desire to fly to their relief. They had no doubt of the success of a general engagement; and it was their opinion that it ought to take place as soon as possible, that they might march to Châlons, where they should find immense supplies, by means of which the Prussian army would no longer be liable to be weakened by the separation of numerous detachments to protect communications become useless. General Clerfaye supported this opinion.

‘ The king of Prussia, animated by the same sentiments, inclined so openly to this opinion, that at the breaking up of the conference, he spoke of fixing the 29th for the attack: it is certain at least, that the news of it was carried to the princes, and spread the liveliest joy throughout their army. But Frederic William in the end adopted the opinion of the duke of Brunswick and the Prussian generals; and at the moment when the armies expected to receive orders to march against the enemy, they were commanded to retreat. On the day before, the suspension of hostilities was suddenly countermanded, and the friendly communications broken off by Dumourier on the receipt of the manifesto, or declaration, which the duke of Brunswick sent to him by one of his aid-de-camps, “The duke of Brunswick,” said he,

"certainly takes me for a burgomaster of Amsterdam: tell him, that from this moment the truce is at an end, and that I gave the order for its ceasing before you."

The princes, with their cavalry, left their cantonments on the 30th, and arrived, after a march of two days, at Vouziers, whence they advanced to Stenay. The Austrians and Prussians retreated beyond the Aisne with the same expedition. The bad roads, and the treachery of the waggons, occasioned the loss of many of the waggons, which were pillaged by the patriots and by the Prussians themselves.

As soon as the first column of the army of the princes was on the highway to Stenay, several bodies of French cavalry were seen coming out of the woods of Mont-Dieu, and spreading themselves behind the hills, then suddenly sending scouts to the heights, some regiments of infantry appeared in view with two pieces of cannon, which they pointed on the column. The manœuvres ordered by marshal Broglie at this moment were so executed, that those random gunners were soon made to vanish, and the retreat of the princes secured, notwithstanding all the dispositions which Dumourier had made to harass their march, and to fall on their rear guard. They arrived at Stenay, where they fixed their head quarters.

The retreat of the Prussians was made with the greatest order, as Dumourier himself confessed. The king never left his rear guard, where he personally distinguished himself, evincing as much perseverance as he had before displayed bravery in the battle of Valmy, where he was at the head of his columns; but this unfortunate army might be traced by the dead bodies of men and horses that were strewn upon the road.

It was not yet too late to undertake the siege of Sedan; it was the duke of Brunswick's intention, and general Clerfaye and the prince de Hohenloe were already instructed to proceed to the operations, when the duke de Saxe-Teschen recalled general Clerfaye's army, on receiving news that Dumourier was marching to the relief of Lille; and a few days after the landgrave of Hesse recalled his troops to defend his own states, which were threatened by general Custine: thus was the duke of Brunswick forced not only to renounce the plan of besieging Sedan, but to evacuate, first, Verdun, and then Longwy, to go and recover Francfort, arrest the progress of general Custine, and save Coblenz and the territory of Trèves.

Such was the deplorable issue of this famous campaign, from which the allied powers, the French princes, and all the royalists, expected such favourable consequences! And to what cause can we impute reverses so unforeseen, so incredible? This question must be left for the future decision of history: it will not be determined till the passions and party spirit, which never look but at the outside of things, be sufficiently allayed to give place to impartiality. In the first place, it is necessary to banish the chimerical and absurd suppositions which, at the time, ignorance or malice obtruded on the public curiosity, as the motives for the duke of Brunswick's retreat. The facts which I have related seem to me to prove sufficiently that it had become indispensable at the time it was determined upon. The pretended letter from Louis XVI. written from the Temple, to request the retreat of

the armies, never existed. This is ascertained by Clery's Journal. The courier from London, supposed to be charged with a similar commission, is a still more improbable story. England has been often accused, and always without the least proof, of encouraging the revolutionary faction, which never had a more invariable or more formidable enemy than that country; but even supposing, against all truth, that in 1792 the English government, swayed by politics so narrow and barbarous, had desired a continuance of the troubles that agitated France, till she was so weakened, that she could no longer be a formidable rival; and that this motive had induced them to propose to the duke of Brunswick, or to the king of Prussia, to draw off his army, is it probable that that brave monarch, who daily exposed his life like a common soldier, that he might have the glory of being the deliverer of Louis XVI. and of France, would not have rejected with indignation so scandalous a proposition? Can it be imagined that the duke of Brunswick would have consented to sully the most honourable military career with so disgraceful an action? As for the negotiation opened with Dumourier, I have already stated the object of it; it certainly had no connection with the retreat of the Prussian army, and it cannot be better proved than by the manner in which the negotiation was broken off. There was the greater reason for hoping that it would succeed, as five months before, Dumourier, then in the ministry, had sent a person of the name of Benoist, formerly employed in the police office, to general Heymann, with a proposal to deliver up the king of France at any place that should be agreed upon. This proposal was communicated to M. de Bischofswerder, who, after taking the king of Prussia's orders, answered, that nothing could be done in the matter till the armies were on the frontiers of France. That time was arrived, and certainly it was not to be expected that Dumourier, when a general, should consider as dishonourable, proposals he had himself made when a minister. It was more natural to presume that he had been anxious to obtain the command, that he might be the more able to execute the plan he had conceived.

I shall say no more respecting the retreat of the duke of Brunswick; I believe I have sufficiently proved that he was compelled to it by irresistible necessity. There can therefore remain no reasonable doubt as to his motives. It is not easy to point out all the causes to which the disasters of this campaign are to be attributed: one of the principal, and perhaps the most fatal of the whole, was the extreme confidence of success. It was imagined that the combined armies would meet with no resistance; that all the fortresses would open their gates to them; that as soon as they had passed the frontiers, the royalists, the malcontents, and French deserters would join them by thousands, and that they would find immense supplies and resources in the country. So convinced was the emperor of this, that he had not hesitated to reduce about 60,000 men of the number of troops he was to furnish, and to send the others without heavy artillery. The neglect of the arrangements relative to provisions and military supplies, the manifesto with ridiculous threats, which was preferred to that proposed by Louis XVI. through Mallet-du-Pan, and the delay of opening the campaign for more than two months, were the consequences of the same illusions. The days required for marching to Paris had:

been calculated, with a firm persuasion that there could be no obstacle to stop the armies on the way.

These first errors were the more serious, because, had the duke of Brunswick's army been prepared to enter France at the time when the outrages of the 20th of June excited a general indignation against the Jacobins, and against the assembly; and had he announced by his manifesto, that the powers, justly provoked to take up arms, by the factious who prevailed in France, had no intention whatever to make war against the country; that no idea of invasion or of conquest had induced the march of their armies, which were destined to protect the worthy French, and enable them to prevent the king and his family from being exposed to fresh outrages from the brigands; he might have gained the support of the majority of the inhabitants of the provinces through which he would have marched, and have everywhere secured abundant resources. The French armies, too weak to have resisted, would have fled before him, and a great number of deserters would have augmented his army, whose approach, concurring with M. de la Fayette's conduct to the legislative body, would have spread a timely alarm throughout the capital, and in all probability have decided the counter-revolution. The misfortune of not having taken the advantage of so favourable an occasion, might still have been repaired, if the duke of Brunswick had had at his command 60,000 men more, with a sufficient quantity of heavy artillery, and the military supplies he had required. He would not then have been obliged to wait nearly a month for the arrival of general Clerfaye, of the Hessian troops, and of those commanded by prince Hohenloe. He would, on the contrary, have made himself master of all the fortresses before the 26th of August, and marched to Châlons, driving before him, or cutting to pieces Dumourier's little ill-conditioned army, which Kellerman and Beurnonville had not yet joined. Being master of that town, and of all the magazines of the French army kept there, the duke of Brunswick would have been able to march to Paris, where he would have arrived, without any obstacle, in the beginning of September, with an immense army in the best condition.

The French princes and emigrants have been accused, with great asperity, of having caused all the disasters of this campaign, by deceiving the powers, in respect to the disposition of the country, with solemn assurances that were not supported, and with informations declared to be positive, but which the event proved to be unfounded. This charge is unjust. I was then in France, and no one had it more in his power to be exactly informed of the disposition of the country. It is certain, that after the 10th of August the assembly, governed and protected by the commune of Paris, had no other adherents, no other support in the provinces, than the Jacobin clubs and some thousands of vagabonds and worthless fellows, who, under the denomination of *patriots* and *sans-culottes*, were breaking open the prisons, pillaging property, and committing murder. The rest of the nation, thunderstruck at all the crimes that were perpetrated, saw with indignation the supreme authority and all the powers of government in the hands of the vilest rabble, and sincerely wished, not for a return of the abuses, or even of all the institutions of the old system, but the re-establishment of order and of the legitimate power of the king, whose

dreadful situation inspired the greatest interest in nineteen out of twenty of the inhabitants of the provinces, and inclined them to revolt against the prevailing tyranny. There is no doubt, that if at that time the princes and emigrants, declaring, as they did, intentions conformable to the general wish, had appeared at the head of an army sufficiently formidable to dispel the fears of those who should support them, they would have been joined every day by immense numbers of volunteers, and by a great part of the French troops of the line. Vol. vii. p. 475.

The battle of Jemappe—the first pitched engagement between the antagonist armies, and by far the most important of the campaign—is hurried over with blamable rapidity. We are only informed that such a battle was actually fought, and presented with Dumourier's brief statement of its termination. We are not told precisely the number of troops on either side—we know nothing of its plan—nothing of the loss sustained—nothing of the causes that decided it in favour of the French, although it was an event of the utmost moment to the republicans, and contributed, more than any transaction which had yet occurred, to give stability to their party. But M. Bertrand is a statesman, it may be observed, and no warrior. And yet the celebrated question, whether England or France commenced the late war, together with the correspondence between lord Grenville and M. Chauvelin, and other documents upon which that question reposes, are passed over with as indecisive and unsatisfactory a brevity, as the account of the battle of Jemappe; and neither Mr. Marsh nor Mr. Belsham would have gained any thing by postponing their diatribes upon this subject, 'till they had obtained possession of the present work. All we can collect is, that the disposition—perhaps the firm determination—of the British ministry, to espouse the cause of the king, contributed, like the violent manifesto of the duke of Brunswick, in no small degree to accelerate his fate.—The life of Louis XVI. might unquestionably have been spared, if the cabinets of Europe had been possessed of common prudence. The unfortunate monarch had warm but injudicious friends: he fell a sacrifice, rather to the intemperance of his allies, than to the ferocity of his enemies; and we have no hesitation in asserting, that, if the same transaction were to recur, it would be marked by a very different kind of interference.

Our readers will be surprised to find, that, in the debate which preceded the decree of the king's death, the only man who is deemed worthy of praise by M. Bertrand is Thomas Paine. - Our author shall speak for himself.

‘ The well-known Thomas Paine, who owed his deputation to the

national convention to the seditious extravagance of his republican principles, voted for the king's confinement during war, and for his punishment at the return of the peace. In this sitting he gave his vote with much more earnestness than any one of his colleagues in favour of delay. "I very sincerely regret," said he, "the part which was yesterday adopted by the convention with regard to the punishment by death; I have the advantage of some experience in subjects of this nature: it is almost twenty years since I engaged in the cause of liberty, by contributing to accomplish the revolution of the United States of America. My language has always been the language of liberty and humanity. Experience has taught me, that nothing so much exalts the spirit of a nation as the union of these two principles in all circumstances. I know that the public mind throughout France, and especially in Paris, has been heated and irritated by the dangers to which the country has been exposed: but if we look forward towards that period in which those dangers and the irritation they have produced shall be forgotten, then we shall be able to perceive, that the very transaction which to our present view bears the semblance of an act of justice, will then appear as a deed of vengeance. My anxiety for the cause of France is now converted into an anxiety for her honour; and should it be reserved for me, after my return to America, to write the history of the French revolution, I would much rather have to record a thousand errors proceeding from a regard to humanity, than a single one inspired by too severe a principle of justice. France has at this time but one ally, the United States of America; and this ally is the only nation that can furnish her with naval stores; for the northern powers, which have commonly supplied them, are, or very soon will be, at war with her: besides it most unfortunately happens that the object of the present discussion is regarded in the United States as their best friend, as the parent of their liberty. I am able to assure you that his execution will spread an universal affliction among them, and you have it now in your power to spare your best friends so much sorrow. If I could speak the French language, I would at your bar present a petition in the name of my American brethren for the delay of the execution of Louis."

The reading of this speech, which had been translated from the English, was often interrupted by violent murmurs: it was pretended that this could not be the opinion of Thomas Paine; that his translator had betrayed him instead of translating his sentiments; but a deputy declared that he had read the original in the hands of Paine, and that the French was a faithful translation. Hence it must be recorded, to the eternal shame of this assembly, that Thomas Paine, who had long wandered in the fanaticism of the most violent democratic principles, proved himself the wisest, the most humane, the boldest, in a word, the most innocent among them.' Vol. viii. p. 390.

Despicable as this man has made himself in his own country, by his wild rêveries upon government, and his blasphemies upon religion, it is some satisfaction to us, at least, to perceive that nothing could be found in the shape of an Englishman, or possessing a single drop of English blood, which was base enough to countenance so diabolical a trans-

action. Our author thus proceeds with his account of the sitting.

‘ Many measures of delay were proposed: one till the ratification of the constitution by the people; another till peace should take place; and a third till the territory of the republic should be invaded by the enemy. Barrere combated all these propositions in a long speech, tending to prove that the first was dangerous, the next impolitic and Machiavelian, and the last barbarous. “I know not,” said he, “any procedure more cruel, more inhuman, than to suspend a sword over the head of a man, and to tell him, at each movement of the enemy’s forces—*Now your head falls*. No, I cannot consider him as a legislator, who would thus constrain a condemned criminal to drink the cup of death at long repeated draughts.”

‘ It no doubt appeared to him a much wiser and a much more humane plan, to have him executed in twenty-four hours, as Marat had proposed. He concluded with moving that the question of delay should be determined by a call of votes. The assembly decreed that this should be proceeded upon immediately, and that each member should answer plainly and simply by *Aye* or *No*. Out of 690 voters, 310 voted for delay, and 380 against it.

‘ After the proclamation of the result of the votes, Cambaceres read a motion for a decree, which, with some amendments, was adopted in these words:

“ A notification of the decree which pronounces death against Louis Capet shall be sent instantly to the executive council.

“ The executive council shall be charged to notify the decree to Louis in the course of the day, and to cause it to be executed within twenty-four hours after the notification; and shall enforce whatever measures of general safety and police may appear necessary to them for the furtherance of the execution. They shall give an account of their proceedings to the convention.

“ The mayor and municipal officers of Paris shall be enjoined to suffer Louis to communicate with his family, and to have with him such priests as he may desire to attend him in his last moments.”

‘ It was three o’clock in the morning when this fatal sitting rose.’
Vol. viii. p. 394.

The heroic conduct of the king, from the moment he was informed of his fate till he mounted the awful scaffold, is almost a verbal copy from Clery’s Journal, of which we have formerly given an account, and the accuracy of which cannot be doubted, as it was afterwards attested by Madame Royale herself. Our author concludes his Annals with the following reflexions, in the greater part of which we most heartily unite.

‘ The French revolution is an awful lesson both to sovereigns and subjects. May the instruction it conveys not be lost to the human race, who have purchased it at the price of so much blood; nor to France, which it has plunged into so much guilt! May it teach kings, that benevolence, piety, and all the mild and amiable virtues which

can adorn a throne, are not the qualities the most effectual for its support! Justice and prudence to command, vigour and firmness in exacting obedience, are the only virtues by which a sovereign can maintain his authority, and which can effectually secure him against the dangers of a revolution.

' May the people, admonished by our calamities, learn to regard the government. under which they are born as their most invaluable property; as the surest protection of every thing that is dear to them! May the experience of all ages, and of all nations, convince them; that there never existed a government free from abuses; that those to which they are accustomed are the easiest to support. Let them be taught, that those ambitious, wicked, or mad persons, who, under the specious pretext of reforming abuses, shall propose a change in their government, will ever prove their most dangerous enemies. It is to their insidious doctrines and diabolical machinations that France may impute the horrible events and innumerable calamities which overwhelm and disgrace her.

' How ought she now to abhor those outrageous apostles of liberty and the sovereignty of the people, who have never been able nor inclined to produce any other result from their doctrines than licentiousness and anarchy! How ought she to abhor those pretended restorers of the rights of man, who with impunity, have violated and trodden under foot the most sacred laws of humanity!' Vol. viii. p. 437.

We have already observed, that vol. IX. and last, consists almost entirely of an appendix; and that, for the greater benefit of the *English reader*, the papers of which it is composed are all printed in their original *French*. Many of them are important, as documents of reference, but none sufficiently interesting to be transcribed in this place. To this voluminous appendix, is added a supplement, containing a few *observations* on M. Mallet-du-Pan's Critical Remarks on M. Bertrand's Annals, as they appeared in No. 33 of a periodical publication of the former gentleman, entitled The British Mercury. These *observations* need not detain us: the *Remarks* themselves were but of small and temporary importance. The volume closes with several letters which passed between our author and Mr. Fox, in consequence of the latter's having made what M. Bertrand conceived an *inaccurate* quotation from his Annals, in a debate in the house of commons. Upon a careful perusal of the passage referred to, we cannot perceive the inaccuracy of which M. Bertrand complains: the *spirit* of the text is most assuredly with Mr. Fox; and we can only allow to the author the merit of extorting a mere *verbal* difference.

ART. VI.—*The Arabian Nights. Translated by the Reverend Edward Forster. With Engravings, from Pictures by Robert Smirke, R.A. 5 Vols. 8vo. 3l. Boards. Miller. 1802.*

WE have more than once intimated a doubt, that no genuine *complete* copy of *The Thousand and One Nights*—for by that name these tales are circulated through the East—at present exists; and, from the result of Mr. Forster's inquiries relative to them, we are not inclined to relinquish our suspicions. It was once pretty generally understood, that they constituted the manuscript of Arabian tales, purchased at Mr. Wortley Montague's sale by Dr. White; in respect to which, Mr. Forster professes his having procured *the most authentic intelligence.*

'They were afterwards' (he says) 'transferred to Mr. Scott, as mentioned by him at the end of his volume of Translations, published in 1800. And I believe, they will soon be deposited in the Bodleian library, at Oxford. They contain many other tales besides those, which M. Galland has translated; but most of those, which he has omitted, are not near so entertaining as the tales he translated, although there are some equally so. In a work indeed of so great an extent, equality of excellence could not perhaps be expected. Certainly not, when we consider the tales as the work of different authors. It is indeed the opinion of a gentleman of very extensive Oriental knowledge, that the Arabian Nights originally consisted of not more perhaps than a fourth part of the manuscript purchased by Dr. White; but that writers in various parts of the East, where the Mussulman religion prevailed, have added to them so as to complete the thousand and one nights, which I believe to be the division of those Tales, formerly in the possession of Dr. White.' Vol. i. p. lix.

For this belief, however, no particular reason is assigned. We apprehend, indeed, that not more than a fourth part is translated by Galland of the *Thousand and One*: at the same time, we cannot but think that such was their primary designation, whether composed by a single person, or by a junto of contemporary writers. The specimen afforded in the first and second volumes of the French translation strengthens the idea, that such was originally their numerical division. A uniform character, bearing the stamp of considerable antiquity, pervades these tales: no difference in the mode of composition—no allusion to modern incidents or modern customs, is discernible in either;—circumstances highly improbable, had they been composed at different periods, and in different regions, unless (and the idea is not very probable) the most ancient only fell into M. Galland's possession. In a country where the prover-

vation of literary productions must depend—as that of the Arabian Nights did—on transcription; and, in its ruder districts, on verbal recital, not only its liability to corruption, through the carelessness of transcribers, but its danger of mutilation likewise, must be increased in proportion to its antiquity. We cannot, therefore, be surprised at the variation which exists in some copies of these tales, and the irretrievable loss, in all probability, of others. In fact, no proof, nor shadow of a proof, can be produced, of their having been written at different periods, or in different countries.

Though some of the tales, in Mr. Scott's manuscript, agree with those translated by M. Galland, we are well assured, that no Oriental scholar, who has inspected it, will assert that such is the case in regard to the majority: nor will he deny that they stand totally distinct and unconnected; while, in those of Galland, we find a regular system adopted, and one story, by the intermediate dialogues between the sultan and his ladies, leading us to another. These dialogues—however unpleasing and inartificial to the European reader—appear an essential part of the original work. We conceive, therefore, that they are requisite to establish the authenticity of an Oriental copy—for we know not by what other mean it can be decidedly ascertained. But these breaks or divisions do not occur in Mr. Scott's manuscript; nor, as we have said, is any kind of arrangement discernible in this collection. Though we cannot therefore allow its having the least pretension to be styled a genuine copy of *The Thousand and One Nights*, it is not impossible that some of the stories it contains, though they do not correspond with those in Galland, may have once formed a part of the original performance; and that their connecting colloquies have been omitted through the laziness of transcribers. Their claim, however, must depend on vague conjecture; and, in all probability, the manuscript is merely a compilation—a kind of Oriental novelist's magazine, in which some popular romances of the Richardsons, Fieldings, and Smollets, of the East, are, without discrimination, blended together. We are informed that the name of their transcriber—or rather compiler, in our opinion—was Omar al Siftee; but at what period he lived, or where he resided, it does not appear; and it is now impossible to ascertain where Mr. Montague procured the manuscript, or to acquire any further intelligence concerning it.

Mr. Forster proceeds to tell us, that, in the manuscript

— ' which is in the possession of Dr. Russell, the number of nights

is about two hundred only; and it is also a doubt, whether the manuscripts either in the Vatican or in the Royal Library at Paris are complete.' Vol. i. p. lx.

That this copy is genuine, so far as it goes, may be presumed, from its containing the inartificial but authenticating colloquies of Schahriar and Scheherazade; and we conclude those in the Vatican, and at Paris, have the same distinguishing characteristics.

'It is the opinion of most Oriental scholars, that no two copies will be found exactly to correspond, even in the original contracted work, and still less so in the more enlarged manuscripts.' Vol. i. p. lx.

Such variations must naturally be expected in a popular work of fancy, widely circulated, and preserved for a considerable number of ages by tradition and transcription. We do not well understand what is meant by the *original contracted work*, unless it imply the stories translated by M. Galland, and which we indeed conceive to be the only indubitable collection of those which once formed a part of *The Thousand and One Nights*, that ever issued from an European press. Nor can we apprehend what is intended by the *more enlarged manuscripts*, unless it mean such as that in Mr. Scott's possession, which is, in our opinion, an Oriental miscellany.

'There have also been four volumes of tales published, as the continuation of the Arabian Nights, and which M. Galland did not translate, although the Arabic manuscript of the whole, as the French translator states, was brought over, and placed in the library of the king of France at the same time. This latter French work has since been published in English. These, however, are universally believed to be spurious, and the work of an European. Abundant evidence might be given of this, were I inclined to enter into the question. I shall only mention one instance.—An inhabitant of the country, where the fact happened, is made to express the greatest astonishment at an appearance the most common. "What a thick infectious mist! How could it arise from dry sand, destitute of water! It is a very extraordinary phenomenon!" The man, who wrote this, could never have been in Arabia, nor even have consulted modern travellers, or he would have known, that this appearance is most frequent.' Vol. i. p. xii.

A beautiful poem, translated by professor Carlyle, from an early Arabian writer (and others of the same character embellish this performance), is adduced to confirm the observation. Most of the tales, indeed, in the supposed *Continuation*, bear intrinsic marks of having been manufactured in Europe—

True Indian handkerchiefs from Spitalfields.

In the first story (and we shall notice no other), where Haroun Alraschid assumes the title of *Il Bondocani*—a name very ungenial to the Arabic idiom—he professes, with much humility, an abhorrence to ceremonious respect; whereby he was kept in ignorance of the truth; and insists that his courtiers should avoid it hereafter in their intercourse with him. Would the author of the genuine Arabian tales have attributed such a sentiment to ‘the commander of the faithful,’ the most despotic of princes, who always exacted from those around him—except in the hours of caprice and relaxation—the profoundest reverence, the most implicit submission? His submission to reproof, and his sentimental reflexions, in the same part of the story, are no less ungenial to the vicar of Mohammed. In the few colloquies introduced between these stories—with the intent, we may suppose, to preserve some resemblance to the original work—we find, in two or three instances, the sultan and his fair companions discussing the merits or defects of the tale previously recited, with as much discrimination and sagacity—‘*absit invidia verbo*’—as if they had belonged to a corps of monthly critics. But in the genuine work, the good sultan never discovers any powers of investigation: he merely expresses a curiosity to know how the story will conclude, or his satisfaction at its admirable termination.

As, however, contrary to Mr. Forster’s statement, we understand that some gentlemen of respectability, formerly residents in Asia, have asserted, that to their knowledge these stories are of Oriental extraction, we will admit that the greater part (we cannot allow the whole) may have been founded on legends circulated in the East; at the same time we are morally certain, that the superstructure is commonly according to the rules of European architecture. That some of them are interesting, and display a considerable degree of fancy, we are likewise ready to grant; but they bear as little resemblance to the *naïveté* and simplicity of the tales translated by Galland, as a Rambler of Johnson does to a Spectator of Addison.

Notwithstanding the incongruities and absurdities they frequently exhibit, and the inelegant garb in which we have been used to contemplate them, we find something so fascinating, so powerfully arresting our attention, that few people, but those of the most saturnine habits, can enter into the adventures they detail without being interested, nor desist from the perusal without reluctance.

Mr. Forster, perhaps, will scarcely thank us for the ungracious and disqualifying manner in which we commence our eulogy: that which he bestows is of a very superior

nature; and we shall submit it to the reader, to acquiesce in its justice, or make what deductions he pleases.

‘Writers who blend moral instruction and useful information with amusing tales, have some merit. And when a work even does more than this, when it contains a correct delineation, and gives a detailed account, of the peculiar manners, customs, and modes of life, of a part of the globe, in which some of the most singular nations of the earth once flourished, its merit is infinitely great, and it deserves the perusal and attention of every one. And such a work, in the fullest extent, is the *Arabian Nights*; which is more descriptive of the people, customs, and conduct of eastern countries during the middle ages, than any other existing work; and, as far as other writers or travellers have investigated these subjects, so far have the correctness and authenticity of this work been confirmed.’ Vol. i. p. x.

In further support of the merits of this favourite performance, he adduces the authority of Mr. Hole, who, ‘with much ingenuity in his remarks on the voyages of Sindbad, has accounted for, and sometimes justified, the most singular and extraordinary circumstances.’ Such a mode of illustration, in his opinion, ‘would also lead to interesting discoveries, relative to the progress of ideas from one nation to another. A scientific translator would not only be induced to trace many of these stories to a classic origin, but likewise to retrace some of the classic fictions to their primitive eastern derivation.’

We heartily wish such a plan had been executed with taste and industry; and doubt not that many passages, apparently grotesque and extravagant, would be found, like those commented on by Mr. Hole, erected on classical authority, or exemplifying the customs and explaining the long-established traditions of the East. In imitation of that gentleman, the translator has favoured us with a few notes which materially tend to elucidate obscure passages. The following illustrates one, which, in the former translation, appears truly absurd:

‘In the story of the Merchant and Genius, vol. i. page 37, the latter says, “I have sworn to kill thee, as thou hast killed my son; for whilst thou wast throwing about the stones of the dates, thou hadst eaten, my son passed by, and one of them struck him in the eye and caused his death.” Now this, at first sight, seems a singular, if not a ridiculous thing; but even this has its foundation in an eastern custom. There are accounts, (and I speak upon the authority of Warren Hastings, Esq. than whom no one is better acquainted with Oriental manners and history; and whose name is almost revered throughout that quarter of the world,) there are accounts of people having been killed by date stones, which were shot at them in a particular manner with both hands. Those persons, who are in the

habit of doing this, will send the stone with such velocity as to give a most violent blow. And it is in this manner, that prisoners are sometimes put to death; a man sits down at a little distance from the object, he intends to destroy, and then attacks him by repeatedly shooting at him with the stone of the date, thrown from his two forefingers; and in this way puts an end to his life.—The former translation, by calling these stones, the “shells” of the date, besides totally mistaking the fact, dates having no shells but only stones, makes complete nonsense of the tale.’ Vol. i. p. xxi.

‘ In the History of Codadad, vol. iv. page 158, there is a custom, similar to that mentioned in the New Testament, of wiping the feet with the hair, as a mark of respect, where a woman, who was a sinner, wipes the feet of our Saviour. Luke, chap. vii. ver. 38, and John xii. v. 3. Thus in the story, “O, prince, what is there we can do for you? If either prayers or knowledge could restore you to life, we would wipe your feet with our white beards, we would address you in speeches of wisdom: but the King of the Universe has taken you away for ever.”

‘ Again also in the History of Schemseldinihar and the prince of Persia, when the former was told, that the caliph was coming to visit her, she ordered “the paintings on silk, which were in the garden, to be taken down.” In the same manner are paintings, or hangings, used in the Old Testament, where it is said, “The women wove hangings for the grove.” 2 Kings, xxiii. v. 7.’ Vol. i. p. xxv.

Were the stories throughout commented upon after the manner of the preceding notes, which we have selected for their brevity—even without that acuteness of observation and extent of knowledge which Mr. Hole has bestowed on the voyages of Sindbad—the Arabian Nights would no longer be considered as a work of amusement alone.

It is needless perhaps to mention, that the present translation is not from any Oriental manuscript, but from M. Galland's French copy; with which, by the testimony of Mr. Hastings—a most competent judge, and an admirer of the original work—we ought to be fully satisfied. The following extract is given of a letter from him:

‘ M. Galland has selected the best of the tales, and rendered those, which he has given us, if not quite faithfully, yet with the costume and manners perfectly correct, and the language both elegant and Oriental. Our English translation of his work is mean and coarse beyond criticism.’ Vol. i. p. xlv.

That such is the case, notwithstanding its popularity, we must allow; and we are pleased to find it superseded, as it soon must be, by the present version, which is in general executed with neatness and precision. Some defects might be pointed out; but they are not many in number, nor of.

fensive in their nature. A short specimen may not be disagreeable, particularly the following account of Egypt (a country now interesting to the British reader), as it was in the middle ages. We scruple not to profess our conviction of its accuracy, though somewhat highly coloured, at the period when the story to which it belongs is supposed to have taken place. It affords a mortifying contrast to its present degraded and miserable state.

"Let people say what they will," cried my father, "he, who has not seen Egypt, has not seen the greatest wonder in the world. The earth is all gold, that is to say, so fertile, that it enriches the inhabitants beyond conception. All the women enchant one either by their beauty or their agreeable manners. If you mention the Nile, what river can be more delightful? What water was ever so pure and delicious? The mud, that remains after its overflowings, enriches the ground, which produces, without any trouble, a thousand times more than other countries do with all the labour, that it costs to cultivate them. Hear what a poet, who was obliged to quit Egypt, addressed to the natives of that country: 'Your Nile heaps riches on you every day; it is for you alone, that it travels so far; alas! at leaving you, my tears will flow as abundantly as its waters; you will continue to enjoy its pleasures, whilst I, contrary to my inclinations, am condemned to deprive myself of them.'

"If," continued my father, "you cast your eyes on the island, which is formed by the two largest branches of the Nile, what a variety of verdure will gratify them! What a beautiful enamel of all kinds of flowers! What a prodigious quantity of cities, towns, canals, and a thousand other pleasing objects! If you turn on the other side, looking towards Ethiopia, how many different subjects for admiration! I can only compare the verdure of so many meadows, watered by the various canals in the island, to the brilliancy of emeralds set in silver*. Is not Cairo the largest, the richest, the most populous city in the universe? How magnificent the edifices, as well private as public! If you go to the pyramids, you are lost in astonishment; you remain speechless at the sight of those enormous masses of stone, which lose their lofty summits in the clouds; you are forced to confess, that the Pharaohs, who employed so many men, and such immense riches in the construction of them, surpassed all the monarchs, who have succeeded them, not only in Egypt, but over the whole world, in magnificence and invention, by leaving monuments so worthy of them. These monuments, which are so ancient, that the learned are at a loss to fix the period of their erection, still brave the ravages of time; and will remain for ages. I pass over in silence the maritime towns of the kingdom of Egypt, such as Damietta, Rosetta, and Alexandria, where so many nations

* Gaunt, in Richard the Second, applies the same exuberance of panegyric to his native country, which he styles—

'This precious stone set in the silver sea.'

traffic for various kinds of grain and stuffs, and a thousand other things for the comfort and pleasure of mankind. I speak of it from knowing the place; I spent some years of my youth there, which I shall ever esteem the happiest of my life." Vol. ii. p. 171.

These volumes are neatly printed, and illustrated by some spirited and well-executed engravings.

ART. VII.—*The Principles of Surgery, in 2 Vols. Volume the First; Of the ordinary Duties of the Surgeon, containing the Principles of Surgery, as they relate to Wounds, Ulcers, and Fistulas; Aneurisms, and wounded Arteries, Fractures of the Limbs, and the Duties of the Military and Hospital Surgeon. Volume Second; A System of Surgical Operations, containing the Principles of Surgery, as they relate to Surgical Diseases and Operations, as Lithotomy, Trepan, Hernia, Hydrocele, Amputation, &c. By John Bell, Surgeon. 4to. 4l. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1801.*

THOUGH we think a system of modern surgery a *desideratum* in the scientific department, yet we do not highly approve the publication of lectures, nor especially that splendid form of publication which keeps proper information from some of the lower classes of the profession. Lectures, in general, should be extemporaneous. The language of conversation fixes the attention both of the professor and student. The former can return to the subject with fresh elucidations, place it in different views, enliven the drier discussions with entertaining anecdotes or appropriate cases, and relieve the attention by suitable digressions. When, however, we peruse a work in the closet, these little reliefs are misplaced; we bring our calm undivided attention to it; and whatever calls us from the chain of reasoning, is from the purpose, and consequently disgusts. Oral instruction is necessarily also more diffuse; and a shorthand-writer can distinguish what has been previously studied from what is truly extemporaneous, by the greater difficulty which he finds in taking down the former. What therefore appears well compacted in the one, is tediously diffuse in the other.

We early found reason to dislike the present work, from its splendor and prolixity. The bulk appeared, in many respects, to be unreasonably augmented; and the substance was often as two grains of wheat in a bushel of chaff. We shall not carry the comparison further; but our author is well read in Shakspeare, and may supply the deficiency, if

he feel guilty*. The first lecture is on the duties of a surgeon; and we were well pleased to see our author reprobating the too common fondness for operations—those splendid exhibitions which some surgeons are unduly anxious to display. The idea of holding up the army, however, as almost the exclusive school of practice, we cannot but disapprove; and the studied concealment of the names of some of the best English surgeons appears invidious. Our author next treats of the doctrine of adhesion, expatiates on the cruel system of tents now exploded, and not likely again to be adopted; and sees, or suspects he sees, a connexion between the use of sympathetic powders and the modern practice. This leads him to a tedious and misplaced digression on these remedies; but, though we may admit, that, while the sword was bathed, the patient would not be tortured with improper dressings, yet the connexion is visionary, and the supposed revolution of little real importance, since tents were used for fifty years after the idle fancy of sympathy was rejected. The use of sutures certainly makes a part of the doctrine of adhesion; yet they were employed long before it was thought of. In a systematic view of the subject, they are properly united. The obstacles to adhesion are next mentioned; but the author ‘fears that he cannot have recollected all the needful rules.’ This is the language of a lecturer: it is disgraceful to the writer of a vast quarto.

The third and following lecture, are on ill-conditioned and complicated wounds; on ulcers, dressings, bandages; and the daily duties of a hospital surgeon. The greater part of the third lecture relates to the duties of military and naval surgeons only; nor are the directions essentially illustrated by coloured plates, as they represent sores, whose appearance would have been sufficiently elucidated by description, or by language, which is in general, in this part of the work, grossly disgusting. The cases are also narrated with a tedious minuteness; and the substance is often lost in a deluge of words.—Is necrosis, by the way, the usual meaning for ‘the *generation* of a new bone to replace that which is spoiled?’—If we admit all these deductions, we may allow that the discourse contains some judicious remarks, which might, with propriety perhaps, have filled two or four *modern* octavo instead of forty-five quarto pages.

* He has inserted, in a note, a singular criticism. He would read ‘the *untreated* woundings of a father’s corse, &c.’ instead of *untender*, as in the old copies; but, as he is *combating* the use of tents as highly cruel. The *untreated* wound is *con-*
treated *generally*.

The subject of the next lecture is aneurysms and wounds of the arteries, and the first discourse on hæmorrhage. In this lecture, we are detained, for a long time, with all the superstitious magic of antiquity in stopping bleedings. It is truly entertaining, but greatly misplaced, either in a lecture, or a system of surgery. This leads to the modern methods of compression, tying, &c. which are well explained. The invention of the needle is attributed to Paré, whose life and persecutions are related at a disproportioned length. Mr. Bell proceeds to more important subjects, and speaks of the condition of the artery in aneurysm, and of the effects of ligatures, of wounds in the artery, and their different states; the effects of compression and other applications; the effects of ligatures and causes of the secondary hæmorrhage. On the latter subject, we shall select the author's sentiments, as more peculiarly his own, and as more compressed in his conclusion.

I ascribe the most dangerous bleedings, both in amputation and in aneurism, to the ulceration of the great artery; some of the causes I hope I have explained to your satisfaction, and the practical conclusion which I would deduce from this doctrine is of no small importance; it has relation more or less direct, to every great operation; and therefore reflect, I beseech you, on those facts and principles, and judge for yourselves. It is my opinion, that a great artery never can be safe while the ligature remains about it; for till it comes away, the artery cannot be said to have adhered, cannot be buried in granulations, nor supported by the surrounding flesh, cannot be out of danger of ulceration! Nor can a great artery ever be safe while it remains insulated, though surgeons seem to take a pleasure in seeing it lying fair along in the cavity of an aneurismal sac! but they should recollect, that if the artery lies more within their reach of operation it is also surer to need it; being thus insulated, stripped of its cellular substance, deprived of its nutritious vessels, the part which is included betwixt the two ligatures must gangrene; the parts under the two ligatures often, in place of adhering, will ulcerate, the ulceration, in place of stopping when the ligatures fall off, will continue, and as the artery is an insensible and firm part, entering slowly into disease, it ulcerates slowly, and bursts only on the tenth, twelfth, or fifteenth day. We have reason then to believe that the oldest practice is the best; that whenever a great artery is tied, it should be cut across betwixt the two ligatures, that it may shrink and bury itself among the surrounding flesh. We know two important facts which direct us to this bold practice: First, That wherever we do tie an artery with two ligatures, the intermediate piece is inevitably destroyed, and it were surely more prudent to cut the part across with the knife, than to allow it to be thus slowly destroyed by ligatures, with danger of the ulceration extending along the artery thus stretched out, and held insulated. Secondly, We know that though we are never alarmed with the femoral artery bursting in amputation where the ligatures come easily away, yet in aneurism our

ligatures remain too long, they seldom loosen till the twelfth or fifteenth day, and there have been few operations in which secondary hæmorrhages do not make part of the narrative of the case.

'I think that, by cutting across the artery, tied in aneurism, we should put it nearly in the same condition with that tied upon the face of an amputated stump. In operating in any considerable aneurism, then I would be careful to cleanse the sac thoroughly of its putrid blood; I would not merely open the general fascia of the limb, but dissect carefully that peculiar sheath which encloses the great artery, veins, and nerve; I would tie the artery clear of the nerves, which, being indestructible, hold the ligatures too long; and I would have it clear also of muscular flesh, which, while it detains the ligature, prevents it operating fully upon the artery: The bare artery I would tie with moderate firmness, with a ligature smaller than is commonly used, and as near as possible to the sound parts. I would not insulate it with pieces of leather or cork, nor lay compresses along its course, but cut it across, that it might shrink among the surrounding flesh. In tying a great artery, I would take every precaution that might ensure the effect of the ligature upon the bare artery, and enable me to draw it early away; and I would be especially careful to prevent my ligature being embarrassed with the surrounding parts.' p. 237.

Mr. Bell's great object, in his instructions respecting ligatures, is to prevent the nerves, and so much of the neighbouring substance as can be excluded, from being surrounded by the thread. The artery is then to be suffered to shrink into the surrounding parts, which, by their union, will contribute to its support, and not to be kept separate till the suppuration of the extremity comes on.

Another cause of secondary hæmorrhage is from inosculating branches, which leads Mr. Bell to his sixth discourse on inosculation. On this subject, he speaks with a warmth not uncommon in this work; and represents the inosculation of arteries as so complete, that even the aorta may be destroyed below its arch, and the circulation maintained by the inosculations of the mammary and epigastric arteries on the abdomen. A singular fact of the effect of these inosculations is indeed adduced; but poor is the logic which can argue that a circumstance will always happen, from what has once occurred. We have seen patients die of gangrene, after the operation for the aneurysm in the arteries of the extremities, the inosculation of whose branches are pointed out, with the most sanguine dependence on their power in continuing the circulation after the trunks are destroyed. The inosculations on every part where they are of importance are developed; but we well know from experience, that, though the circulation be sometimes carried on by the branches, and curious cases of this occurrence are preserved, the inosculating arteries more fre-

quently fail in performing this office. It is properly remarked, that there are no peculiar inosculating arteries; but that all unite, and may, by dilatation, when wanted, perform the most important offices for each other. This certainly implies a retrograde motion; but it only exists in vessels where the direct course is cut off.

• The power of inosculation knows no limits, but, like adhesion, is perfect in all parts of the body wherever vessels exist! no part of the body is lost for want of adhesion; neither can any part be lost for want of inosculation. Who could have believed that a bone could adhere to a bone! Who could have believed that the cornea, when cut open in extracting the cataract, or the crystalline humour when displaced in couching, could adhere to the surrounding parts? Who could have believed that the carotids could be stopped up! the aorta itself interrupted! the vena cava quite obliterated! the thoracic duct oppressed, so as no longer to transmit the lymph, without life being endangered? Who could have believed that the femoral artery, and all its branches on the fore part of the limb, might be obliterated, without the limb falling into gangrene? Surely I am entitled to that broad and universal conclusion to which I have laid claim.

• This fear of interrupting the great arteries proceeded merely from ignorance of pathology. Reason and experience concur to prove that it is safe; and I feel myself entitled to lay down, at the conclusion of this discourse, a rule, the very reverse of that with which it began. After these proofs, the questions about inosculations may be blotted out altogether. Wounds of the axillary artery, like wounds of the femoral artery, are often dangerous from secondary bleeding, but never fatal from the want of inosculations. We may tie the greatest arteries confidently, wherever they are wounded without the trunk of the body. We should tie as boldly the arteries at the groin or in the axilla, as in the lesser branches going down the thigh or arm. Accidents (as we are in all our operations at the mercy of accident) may undoubtedly prevent our achieving a cure! A limb bruised with a waggon-wheel, or wounded with a great ball, cannot be so easily saved, as when the artery alone is wounded by the stab of a knife or sword. Yet although the accidents and dangers of gangrene were multiplied tenfold! this common way of cutting off the thigh, or amputating the arm at the shoulder joint, should be forsaken; it is bad doctrine, and cruel practice.' p. 310.

This is declamation only, resting on isolated cases in many of the circumstances, with the experience of ages in general opposed to it. Tying the artery, in certain emergencies, may perhaps be attempted; but we would warn the young inexperienced surgeon not to expect, in every instance, what may have happened in one; nor to place too great confidence in single events, the chance of whose recurrence is incalculable.

The seventh discourse is on the history and cause of aneurysms. This cause is violence; the irregular and extraor-

dinary exertion of the muscles, more conspicuous in the lower limbs, as their muscles are stronger; and less common in women, as their exertions are less violent. This we consider, however, as a partial view. Something must be attributed to the tension and strength of the arterial system, and something to causes that may accidentally weaken the coats in a particular part. We shall select a judicious and spirited *argumentum ad hominem*.

'You will perhaps say within yourselves, "What should we do, to acquit ourselves faithfully in so difficult a situation?"—Reflect much upon the history of your patient's disease, write it down, ponder upon it, compare it with the descriptions of authors, it is a disease in which you never need be hurried into any imprudent act. Remember how frequently arteries are burst, how slowly aneurism forms, and that when confined in a narrow cavity like the ham, or when buried under the thick muscles of the thigh, when the sac is old, and crammed with firm coagula of blood, aneurism may lose its pulsation. Do not forget this general rule of surgery, which I have ventured to lay down, "Allow no tumor to grow to a dangerous size:" If a tumor have its seat about the throat, near the carotid arteries, or under the angle of the jaw; if it be in the groin, in the thigh, in the cavity of the ham; and most especially if it be at once near a great artery, and a joint such as the knee, deal with it early, and you will often in the course of your practice have the happiness of preventing those afflicting cases which defy surgery.

'In this particular disease, first assure yourself of its nature, submit yourselves to the advice of your fellow surgeons, open the tumor early, but not like those ignorant men who are terrified at the sight of blood! When the coagula roll out, you may be assured that an artery will bleed in the end; when you have cleared out the blood and let go the tourniquet, you will see the artery; when you perceive that the main artery is wounded, the limb being still alive, you have reason to believe that the collateral arteries are enlarged and the limb safe, that you have but the common dangers of all such cases to encounter, viz. sloughing, fever, and weakness. When the artery is but a branch, as the tibial artery, you may tie it with the greater confidence; indeed, it is only when the joint is injured, or the bones carious, that you have to cut off the limb. When you see the mouth of a bleeding artery, you should, in general, tie it with the needle, for it lies deep; when you find no artery, but observe a slow hæmorrhagy from a vein, a piece of scraped lint is sufficient; when there is an oozing of blood from a deep part of the cavity, and from uncertain vessels, you may thrust down a piece of sponge.' P. 352.

The eighth discourse is on the condition of the aneurysmal limb, from which is deduced 'the safety or danger of the various operations for the cure of aneurysms.' The discourse commences with a description of the progress of aneurysmal tumors. It is animated and eloquent; but the natural cure, when by the pressure of the effused blood the artery is

obliterated, and the inosculating branches supply the circulation, is indeed rare. The practice of Guattani and others, who saved, in their own opinion, their patients, by compressing the tumor, and preserving the channel of the artery entire, only assisted this natural process. Every other plan has succeeded, in our author's opinion, in the same way; and his arguments, deduced from facts, merit very particular attention. He has certainly supported his opinion with great force, but perhaps with undue confidence, unquestionably too diffusely.

The danger of amputating aneurismal limbs is next explained, from the state of the inosculating arteries; and Mr. Hunter's method of operating, in the popliteal aneurysm, is commended, from its only imitating the natural process, *viz.* the obliteration of the arterial canal. One cause of the failure of the operation is, in Mr. Bell's opinion, insulating the tied ends of the artery. When tied, each end should, he thinks, be permitted to retract, and to bury itself in the muscular parts above and below. A more common cause is the loss of blood from the inosculating arteries, and gangrene from their fulness, as well as the discharge. An early operation is consequently advisable.

In the next discourse, the author explains the nature of the aneurysm formed over a wounded artery, and adds his 'rules of conduct for the operation.' He contends, we think, with reason, that the circulation, in either extremity, cannot be repressed by any compression on the arteries, above the clavicle, or in the groin. The rules of practice deserve attention.

In 'oblique wounds of the arteries,' our author advises enlarging the original wound, to reach the artery, instead of making a new incision, on a supposition of being able to fix on the spot where the wound may exist: this subject is also unreasonably expanded. The rules for stopping hæmorrhages from smaller arteries, we cannot abridge: many of them are, indeed, sufficiently obvious, and require not the pomp of words here employed to explain them.

What Mr. Bell calls 'aneurisms by anastomosis,' are those bloody tumors which occasionally appear in different parts of the surface, are distinguished by a pulsation, increase with every cause of increased circulation, lessen when the blood is evacuated by puncturing them, and again return. They are, in his opinion, a congeries of small arteries, with their attending veins enlarged, and anastomosing with each other. The only cure is extirpation; and the forty-six quarto pages of this volume give no information beyond this.

The third section of this verbose and bulky work is on

fractures; and the first discourse in this section (XII.) contains the history of the opinions and practices of the older surgeons. The callus is originally a yielding substance: if broken a second time, it will soon re-unite. Bandages are useless, if applied with a view to mould and shape the callus: nature will effect this, with little concern of ours; and to lay the leg straight, and confine the bones by splints tied with tapes, will be sufficient. In fractures of the thigh-bone, where, from the contraction of the muscles, the bones overlap, frequent extension is necessary.

The next subject is fracture of the hip-joint, which is introduced by the anatomy, physiology, and pathology, of the articulation, not without some unbecoming sneers at authors of credit who have had the misfortune of thinking differently from Mr. Bell. The whole mechanism of the thigh-bone and its socket is, however, explained clearly, though, perhaps, at more than sufficient length; after which, our author proceeds to the accidents to which it is liable. Luxation was, for a long time, supposed to be its only possible accident. A fracture of the neck of the bone was afterwards detected. Much controversy has been carried on; and it is now concluded, in the same manner as the young candidate decided the question, whether the earth moved round the sun, or *vice versâ*, viz. 'sometimes one way, sometimes the other.' To be serious:—The controversy, conducted with great acrimony, is at length placed on a very reasonable and obvious footing. No one can deny that the neck of the os femoris is sometimes broken, or that the head of the bone is, at others, thrown out of the acetabulum. In explaining the difficulty of union between the broken ends of the fractured neck of the femur, our author is somewhat embarrassed. He engages in a disquisition respecting the union of a broken patella; but this is clear gain; for it enables him to give a sly stroke at his namesake Benjamin Bell: it is unfortunate in another view; for he is obliged to declare that a complete re-union of the patella is almost impossible. If to render a broken patella equally serviceable with a sound one be a proof of complete re-union, it is *not* impossible. If the dispute be, whether the union be formed by osseous or by ligamentous matter, it is not worth a single line to contest the point. We know that fractures of the neck of the femur do not easily unite; and we think we perceive the reason; viz. strong muscles, acting at right angles, to prevent the ends of the bones from lying in apposition; and perhaps the disadvantage of the circulation, which is transverse, instead of being in the direction of the length of the fibres, may have a little influence. Violent pains are sometimes occasioned by bruises of the soft parts,

in consequence of falls; and these are judiciously discriminated. In the chapter on the scrofulous disease of the hip-joint, we meet with nothing in the remedies particularly new or interesting. The signs of the different kinds of luxations are explained at length; and the whole subject is illustrated by numerous engravings.

The discourse on the fracture of the thigh-bone is most unreasonably expanded, by an introduction of all the various machines of ancient and modern times, to obviate the contraction of the muscles, with the author's sneers and comments, of which he is not sparing. The modern mode of laying the limb easy is well known; and, after some days, the relaxation of the spasm admits of a gradual extension. The liberal use of opium assists this relaxation; and the modern surgeon succeeds better by following nature, than by a complication of all the mechanical powers.

The fifteenth discourse contains rules for the management of simple, compound, and gun-shot fractures, 'deduced from practice, and from the doctrines explained in the foregoing discourse.' We need not enlarge on this subject, as the general rules are sufficiently known, and our author does not materially add to them. Some omissions are, however, discoverable. Not the most inconsiderable of these are the posture of the patient in fractures of the lower extremities, and of the patella. In the former case, we perceive, he places the patient on his back, as his directions are adapted to this position, and he does not mention any change in the progress of the cure. In the rupture of the *tendo Achillis*, he advises that the foot be kept in a horizontal position. Compound fractures, from a gun-shot, are explained and treated very judiciously. They combine a fractured bone with shattered muscles whose texture is destroyed, filled with extraneous substances, to be discharged by suppuration.

Compound fractures are the next objects of attention; and their treatment is particularly detailed, according to the modern practice. When the joint is hereby distorted, much of Mr. Bell's promised success depends on a bold incision, where necessary, to reduce the dislocation. The whole is then managed in the way formerly directed; the supervening gangrene being chiefly superficial, and yielding to the usual remedies. Such is the event, in the best circumstances; but success, in such desperate situations, is not common; and amputation is commonly preferred, we think, with propriety. Our author discusses the question, and is of opinion that it cannot be decided generally, but from a view of the particular cases. There are some in which we may even regret success, as we leave a painful, uncomfortable, and useless limb. We may, on the other hand, occa-

sionally lament our precipitancy. We lately succeeded beyond expectation, in a case of this kind apparently desperate, the greater part of the wound healing by adhesion, the bones uniting with little inflammation, and with very slight exfoliations. But, should a general rule be necessary, we would say, in considerable compound fractures, with dislocations—amputate.

The present is, on the whole, a work of pompous promise and of imposing splendor. It is addressed to army and navy surgeons, and to students; yet, in a bulk little adapted to their situations, and of a price unsuitable to the pockets, of any of them—filled with history, with cases, with controversies, which, in the moment of emergency, are of no advantage, and conceal the few useful instructions scattered through them. In two *very* moderate octavos, the whole might have been contained. It would then have been readily accessible, easily intelligible, and highly serviceable. At present, it appears neither adapted to the student nor to the practitioner. It is cumbersome in the camp, and in a great measure useless in the library, where the originals are to be found.

VIII.—*An Essay on Education; in which are particularly considered the Merits and the Defects of the Discipline and Instruction in our Academies. By the Rev. William Barrow, LL.D. and F.A.S. &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.*

THE subject of education may appear to have been already exhausted. It has indeed been confused by fanciful rêveries, and obscured by affected refinements: it is time to bring it back to the dictates of reason, supported by the experience of ages. In short, we are now about to conclude at the point where we began.

Dr. Barrow, a *miles emeritus* in the campaigns of education and instruction, has presented us, in these volumes, with the result of his own observations. It is long since he first designed to write on the subject; and he regrets that he did not regularly preserve memoranda and anecdotes. We cannot join in this regret; for he has now given us a comprehensive view of the whole subject, instead of what might otherwise perhaps have been a more loose and voluminous publication, to the same effect. There is, we think, little novelty in the author's remarks; yet this we do not consider as a fault. In some instances, he may not have entered, with sufficient depth, into his subject; but

this is a point which will afterwards recur, and claim our particular consideration.

The first chapter, 'on the necessity and importance of a right education,' cannot be supposed to contain many new ideas; but what occur are placed in a just and striking light. The second, 'on the prejudices of education,' has to us appeared much more interesting. We agree with our author, that to root out such prejudices, is to tear the finest web of the human heart, to combat our best feelings, to destroy our most interesting attachments. To become what, in the modern jargon, is styled a citizen of the world—a modern philanthropist—it is to be the cold philosopher, with a splendid and feeling outside.

The third chapter, 'on the discipline and instruction of infants,' is excellent. We should have enlarged on it more fully, and praised it more warmly, were not its sentiments the same as we have already expressed, in our review of Miss Hamilton's Treatise. On 'the comparative advantages of a public and private education,' Dr. Barrow has not given the arguments in favour of his own opinion—the preference of a public school—with sufficient force, nor compacted them with a comprehensive energy. This subject we have lately considered at length, and shall not enlarge on it. We have, indeed, often met with the inquiry, and have already lent Dr. Barrow's opinion all the assistance in our power.

'On the choice of a school,' much general observation may be advanced; but private views will still necessarily influence it. Our author prefers a numerous seminary; and properly stipulates, that the master should be himself a scholar—a circumstance sometimes taken on trust, and sometimes passed over, from the idea of his *undertaking to procure* proper assistants. But who will enable him to judge of the assistants' talents, or the progress of his pupils? Who will expect much from a master, who has not been duly initiated, or whose knowledge of classical learning has been irregularly caught, or imperfectly obtained? Dr. Barrow thinks that the master should be a member of the established church. Generally speaking, we think the same, since the pupils may otherwise cherish from example some little disregard, if not disrespect, for the national religion; and since dissenters have not often an accurate and well-grounded knowledge of the classics, and are seldom sufficiently attentive to prosody. Lord Chatham was severely censured for calling the dissenters 'men of close ambition;' but, we fear, they may be sometimes styled so; for, in many of their institutions, we discern a cunning mixture of policy. We perceive professions of liberality,

incentives to free inquiry, an urgent zeal for general discussion ; but these must terminate only in one point—a dissent from establishments. If this be obtained, a Calvinist will join with a Socinian, or even a deist, or any other class that dissents from the established pale. Such persons should not, in our opinion, be entrusted with the great object of national education. On this point, however, we shall present our author's sentiments in his own words:

‘ It is well known that a large proportion of the dissenters in this country differ from us as widely in their political, as in their religious, opinions; and whether we consult the known properties of human nature, or the history of human actions, we shall find, that those, who oppose an establishment, always exceed those, who support it, in their zeal and activity to make converts to their cause, to encrease their numbers, and their strength. He therefore, who sends his son to a dissenter for instruction, sends him at the hazard of being educated in doctrines, which the son will soon find to be at variance with those generally received; in a dislike to that system of political government, under which he is to live; and a disapprobation of that form of religious worship, with which he will afterwards be constantly tempted by his interest to comply. It requires no great effort of imagination, then, to perceive in such proceedings one source of discontent in the members of the community, of enmity to the establishment, and to those, who enjoy its advantages; of opposition in the great council of the nation; and sometimes, in event, of rebellion in the state. I am far from intending to reflect particularly upon the loyalty, the religion, or the morals of the dissenters of our own times; but that there is too much justice in the general sentiments that have been stated, the annals of our country abundantly testify.’ Vol. i. p. 145.

‘ On the choice of a profession,’ our author’s observations are not exactly what we could have wished. We approve of the maxim of antiquity, ‘ *optimum vitæ genus eligito; nam consuetudo faciet jucundissimum;*’ but it must be taken with some limitation. Clavius was proverbially dull, till tried in the mathematics; and an eminent botanist, of our own time, was never able to master any other subject. A good memory, with a talent of discrimination, will lead a young man to eminence in many of the walks of nature: patient thinking, a power of close intense investigation, will render him a mathematician. Such were Linnæus and Thunberg, Newton and Simpson. Would they have succeeded equally if their destinies had been changed? We think not; yet propensities thus strongly marked are not often met with; and, in the circle of our own acquaintance, we have seen lively mathematicians and dull natural historians. We conceive, however, that a strong memory, a lively fancy, accurate discrimination, and patient thinking,

may, in their turn, be properly considered as leading to a variety of different professions.

The chapter 'on the estimation, treatment, and grievances of the masters of academies,' contains some curious anecdotes; but we cannot enlarge on them. That 'on grammars' affords nothing peculiarly interesting. The observations 'on the study of the English language' are particularly valuable; and we mark, with much satisfaction, the author's caveat against new words or innovations in spelling. We indeed borrow words from the French; but they borrow idioms from us; and their modern authors are almost English. The translators of Denon have scarcely to change the turn of a sentence. In poetry, Dr. Barrow thinks, but without sufficient reason, that we have not succeeded in the sonnet and the ode. The former is, indeed, one of the *difficiles nugæ*, in which to fail would occasion no disgrace; but we have many excellent examples of the legitimate sonnet in the works of Mrs. Smith and Mr. J. Bampfylde. In the other department, we may mention, without fear of contradiction or disgrace, the odes of Gray, Mason, and Collins.

'On writing, arithmetic, and the mathematics,' our author's reflexions are judicious and correct; but that the 'Elements of Euclid are rendered most intelligible in Simpson,' is an assertion that seems to have escaped too hastily and inconsiderately. We suspect that Dr. Barrow has not greatly cultivated the mathematical field, particularly in its higher departments. With respect to geometry, the easiest work we know is that of Euclid, in its original language.—The concluding chapter of the first volume is a defence of classical learning, equally able, judicious, and elegant.

In the second volume, we can distinguish the first chapter, 'on the art of teaching,' with particular commendation. Our author's system does not greatly differ from that of the best public schools; and no refinements have yet shown that their plans are improper. When we meet with scholars equally well instructed, with men equally able and spirited, with professional characters distinguished by as much science, candour, and disinterestedness, from private seminaries, we will readily change our opinions. Even in point of virtue, whatever may be said of the conduct of *boys*, we believe the *men* are not inferior.

'Translations and auxiliary books' our author would reject—we think with reason. We have lately had occasion to turn our thoughts to this subject, by an amicable discussion with the master of a public school, on their utility, which he was inclined to defend. His argument was, that

boys, who employed such books clandestinely, were not less able as scholars, and made a greater advancement in their knowledge of the scope and spirit of the author. The latter, we believe; nor would it, perhaps, be improper to read from a good and free translation the substance of the lesson, after it has been regularly acquired. But we still think, that what is gained without trouble, will be lost in a short time; and we know, that in Greek, where translations are allowed, our own knowledge of the language commenced from the period when we covered the Latin with a paper. Dr. Barrow, however, stigmatises, too indiscriminately, all translations—Castellio's of the Greek Testament; Hutchinson's of the *Cyropædia* of Zenophon, are peculiarly elegant, as Latin compositions. The observations on 'mythology, chronology, and history,' offer no very particular subject of remark. We suspect that, on the second topic, our author would lead the young student into some mazes, through which he would, with difficulty, find his way.

What relates to 'compositions in prose and verse,' deserves the attention of every judicious and intelligent school-master. The ensuing observations merit particular regard :

'But whatever may be the value of translation, and whatever time may be with propriety bestowed upon it, it is still only the means to an end; either the instrument of acquiring a language, or the handmaid of original composition. This last, indeed, in order to be practised long, must be early begun, and steadily continued, in English and in Latin, in prose and in verse. It will no doubt be difficult for children to write, who are neither very able nor very willing to think. It will not be in their power to produce such stores of sentiment and expression, as they have not yet by reading or reflexion collected in their minds. Invention, in the most improved and powerful intellect, is little else than new combinations of ideas already known. The imagination can produce only what it has previously received. The time, at which the pupils first attempt original composition, will therefore be the fittest season for the preceptor to urge, what they will then most sensibly feel to be just, the advantages and the necessity of private study; of perusing, at those opportunities, when their regular business does not require their attention, such works as may enlarge their faculties and every way enrich their minds. The established hours and lessons of a school are never of themselves sufficient for all the various purposes of education; and it is fortunate that the same additional pursuits, which enable the student to perform his task with credit for the present, will best supply the means of future intellectual excellence; will furnish him with sentiments and images, with facts and reflections, with argument and illustration. These purposes, it is obvious, will be most effectually answered by the perusal of our works of history and ethicks, poetry and criticism. And in his advice to his pupils on the subject, the teacher will not fail to recommend such as are adapted at once to the taste and the capacities of youth; such as may captivate

by the graces of their manner as well as the importance of their contents; and secure attention by dressing instruction in the garb of pleasure. In the mean time the judicious master will easily determine, what may with propriety be expected from his pupils; what allowance ought to be made for incapacity and inexperience; and what ought to be required from genius and application. Original composition, however, must be attempted as soon as possible; and it is no small encouragement, that every successive attempt will facilitate every future performance. Such an exercise, too, may at first be required from the student, as shall not discourage him by its difficulty; to give, for example, the narrative of a fable, or the incidents of a well known story, in his own language; to write a familiar letter in any assumed character, and to any supposed friend, that happens to strike his fancy; or to state his opinion of the wisdom or folly, the vice or virtue, of the hero of his classical lesson.

One of the most usual, however, and perhaps one of the most useful, of our exercises in prose at school, are those moral or literary essays known by the technical appellation of themes. To these, therefore, the prudent teacher will have recourse, as soon as the progress of his pupils will permit; and he will repeat them with such frequency as their importance demands. The custom of many of our schools, to appoint weekly one theme in our own, and another in the Latin tongue, seems justly entitled to commendation. It is as little, perhaps, as is consistent with the due improvement of the student in this species of composition; and as much as is compatible with due attention to the various other exercises and lessons which the complicated business of education requires.

Original composition, above every thing else, exercises the pupil in the rules and principles of grammar; teaches him to discriminate the various shades of meaning in similar and kindred terms; to clothe his ideas in language; to arrange them in the sentence; and to place his sentiments in such a point of view, and in such succession, as may best illustrate the truth, which he is called upon to support.' Vol. ii. p. 82.

Exercises in English poetry may, perhaps, be omitted, without any material disadvantage. The study of the French language should not, in our author's opinion, interfere with classical learning: it should rather be deferred till the judgement is more matured. Many reasons concur in supporting this opinion, with which we cordially agree. The following sentiments are also peculiarly just:

' Could the language, however, be perfectly obtained, without prejudice even to other studies, still there are very serious objections to its being made a general object of the earlier part of British education. Many of the modern publications in it abound in sentiments and opinions hostile to every thing which we have been taught to esteem and cultivate; to the precepts of good morals; to the principles of our civil government; and to the doctrines of our national religion. Nor are these dangerous and noxious tenets found only,

where they might in some degree be expected, in the theories of the politician, and the disquisitions of the philosopher. But by the dexterity of literary chemistry they are infused into writings of every description; they are brought to unite with principles the most opposite and heterogeneous. The historian interrupts his narrative and relaxes his gravity to sneer at the priesthood and the privileged orders of society; and the traveller pauses in his journey to complain of the restraints and the wretchedness of civilization, in comparison with the freedom and felicity of savage life. The naturalist in his researches can find a confirmation of his infidelity, instead of new proofs of revelation; the mechanism of nature, instead of the wisdom of her creator: and the novelist, when his licentious sentiments and descriptions have enflamed the passions of his reader, will generally furnish him with a principle, on which they may be indulged without restraint and without remorse. Even the compiler of a dictionary will contrive, in the midst of verbal definitions, to teach practical cruelty under the title of universal philanthropy; atheism in the disguise of devotion; and rebellion and revolution in the form and colour of the natural rights of man. These surely are not the authors which our children ought to peruse; nor will these, if they learn the language, be easily kept out of their hands. In the school and with the teacher a proper selection of books may without difficulty be made. But in their hours of privacy and leisure who shall restrain them! who shall prevent their reading, according to the usual perverseness of our nature, the works most likely to mislead their understandings, and corrupt their morals; and that too with the greatest eagerness, because they have been the most strictly forbidden.' Vol. ii. p. 121.

Under the heads of 'compulsion and correction,' many ingenious 'pains and penalties' are devised; but the rod is the only effectual remedy; and every master of experience must acknowledge it, as Dr. Barrow does, though with apparent reluctance. The chapters, 'on diversions and holidays,' and 'religious instruction,' are uniformly correct and judicious.

The virtues and vices of boys afford an ample theme. We have almost said, in one part of this article, that a public school is a seminary of virtue: it is, at least, a preservative against the meanest and most despicable of vices. Fidelity to engagements, adherence to principles, honour, and generosity, here fix very deep roots. Perverseness, caprice, sullenness, and obstinacy, find no soil. They soon wither under ridicule, or are eradicated by the forcible arguments of a good threshing. Unfortunately, there are drawbacks. The principle of fidelity to engagements sometimes encourages lying; and swearing is said not to be uncommon. Within our own observation, the latter accusation is not, we think, well founded. Debauchery, in the older boys, is certainly among the vices of a public school, which,

we fear, with our author, cannot always be sufficiently guarded against. But have private seminaries no worse faults?—We dare not answer, nor enlarge on the question.

The chapter 'on ornamental accomplishments' is excellent. We shall select the conclusion, or rather the summary of the whole.

* In the pursuit of these ornamental and secondary accomplishments the danger is, lest they should occupy the time, the place, and the estimation of more necessary and more substantial acquisitions. They constitute those superficial and captivating qualities, which please, because they are not severely examined, and are not severely examined, because they please. They contribute to that levity of mind and conduct, which at present threatens to impair the firm texture of the British character and British virtue. The youth naturally covets, what strikes so forcibly his eye and his fancy. The parent encourages, what he sees likely to promote the credit or the success of his offspring in the world; and the possessor at last values highly, what he sees highly valued by all around him. He is sometimes vain and absurd enough to consider any of these accomplishments, in which he is distinguished, or at least to wish them to be considered by others, as of real importance to himself and to society; as a sufficient substitute for all other excellence, whether intellectual, moral, or religious. Nero felt little anxiety for his reputation as a statesman, while he could obtain applause by his performances on the fiddle.

'The time required to attain excellence is the circumstance, which must never be forgotten. That art is long, and life is short, is a maxim, which has lost its novelty, but not its truth; and to which attention can never more properly be paid, than in the education of our children, and the direction of their studies and employments. Johnson has made his *Rasselas* observe, that after deducting the years of imbecillity in infancy, and in old age, the true period of human existence may be estimated at forty years: and from this limited calculation not less than half must be again deducted, for those frequent relaxations of the mind, which the weakness of our faculties irresistibly requires; for that repose of the limbs, which nature has made necessary in the intervals of labour; and for that sickness or misfortune, which no man can always escape. If then a period of not more than twenty years can be employed in the discharge of our various duties; in providing for ourselves, and for those who depend upon us; in the propagation of truth, and the exercise of virtue; a small portion only can be innocently spared for the acquisition of such accomplishments, as have no intrinsic value; and of which the sole utility is to decorate the merit, which they cannot augment. They sweeten the intercourse of society; but over its best interests they have little influence. In the season of youth they are acceptable and pleasing; but they constitute neither the proper employment, nor the proper comfort, of declining years. They may sometimes beguile the toil of serious duties; but of these they form no essential part. That must not supply the place of virtue, which was intended only

for its ornament; that must not form the business of life, which was granted only for its consolation.' Vol. ii. p. 258.

The observations 'on an early knowledge of the world' are truly excellent. Dr. Barrow contends, with great energy and success, against the too early introduction of young men into general company; and highly reprobates the modern system of consigning the clerk or the apprentice to a cheerless lodging, after the business of the day is at an end—a dreary abode, which he will be tempted to change for the tavern, perhaps the brothel. The master should succeed to the father, and superintend the morals of his charge in private, as he does his proficiency in his own business.

The last chapter is 'on the effects of the late revolution in France'—a subject which has engaged much of our attention, and on which we have not been ashamed to retract opinions that experience showed to be delusive and dangerous. The inquiry is connected with the present subject, by considering 'the nature and extent of the mischief; and in what degree it may be corrected or restrained, by the judicious management of education.' The nature and extent of the mischief is very fully detailed, and, we suspect, not exaggerated, though the colouring is peculiarly gloomy. We have, it is remarked, already prepared the soil for the seed; by a laxity of manners and education: by correcting these, we may obviate the effects. We fear, indeed, that the snake is scotched, not killed; and that the roots of Jacobinism are expanding, and sinking deeper: yet we hope there is still virtue enough—still a sufficiency of energy and public spirit—to contend successfully against the hydra, with whatever rapidity its heads may sprout.

In these volumes, we have, indeed, no new system, no speculative refinement, no shorter way to knowledge; but we find much to commend. Sound solid sense, matured experience, extensive and acute observation, distinguish every page. Strict morality, virtue, and religion, are in every part conspicuous.

ART. IX.—*Sermons, designed, chiefly, as a Preservative from Infidelity, and religious Indifference. By John Prior Estlin. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

TO form a proper estimate of compositions from the pulpit, a previous knowledge is requisite of the preacher's object, as well as of the persons to whom they are addressed. From the dedication to this volume, it appears that the dis-

courses it contains were chiefly designed for the younger part of Mr. Estlin's audience, particularly for his pupils and children; whilst the topics selected are not only such as are of high importance at all times, but especially interesting in the present, which the author considers as peculiarly dangerous to the rising generation.

Mr. Estlin's concern for the interests of natural religion has already been evinced, by his answer to the *Origine de Cultes* of DUPUIS; nor has he less successfully subverted the sophisms of the *Age of Reason* against divine revelation. From the same motive, this volume begins with a prefatory discourse upon FAITH; the text being taken from Heb. xii. 6.—*Without faith, it is impossible to please him; for he that cometh to God must believe that he is, and that he is a rewarder of them that diligently seek him.*—Mr. Estlin commences with briefly adverting to the different opinions that have prevailed respecting the author of the epistle—the language in which it was written—the time when—the place where—and the persons to whom addressed; whence he proceeds to observe, after several apposite remarks, that the circumstance which affords, in his judgement, the best key to the whole epistle, and to which reference in every part of it perpetually occurs, is—

‘the Jewish war, which commenced in the year sixty-six, and ended in the entire destruction of the temple, of the Jewish worship and polity, and of the city of Jerusalem itself by Titus, in the year seventy. Whenever therefore you read Josephus's account of the siege of Jerusalem, or our Saviour's prediction of this event, consult this epistle, and whenever you read this epistle think of the siege of Jerusalem, and the total destruction of that city, and of the Jewish temple, worship and polity, and you will see—you will feel beauties in every passage, to which a genuine sensibility of heart will suggest a proper commentary.

In such circumstances—with his own dissolution full in his view—with his mind fixed upon those inconceivably awful events which were just going to take place, what could have been the design of the apostle, in this his last great effort to serve the cause of Christ, but to strengthen the faith of his countrymen; to prepare them to meet, and comfort them under their unparalleled distresses; to preserve them from apostacy and despair, and to arm them with fortitude and resolution? And what topics were so proper for him to insist upon, with this benevolent design, as the importance of faith; the superiority of the Christian dispensation, in all its parts, to that which was just going to be abolished; and the certainty, greatness and duration of the rewards promised to persevering obedience? Although there are no times in which the advice which the apostle gives in this epistle is unseasonable and improper, there never was a period (and as was just observed, it was the most interesting of all periods) when it was so seasonable and so proper.’ P. 3.

These general observations having been pertinently stated, the preacher proceeds to explain the nature and foundation of that faith which is so strongly enforced in the context, pointing out its importance, and recommending it as the universal principle of action. To justify his definition, that faith, in its most natural and liberal sense, signifies nothing more than a *firm belief*, or *persuasion of mind*, and especially in the text, Mr. Estlin adduces *that* of the apostle: but the words of our translation, in which it is expressed, we think extremely erroneous, if not unintelligible. For, if *faith* were the SUBSTANCE of things *hoped for*, the object of hope would be already in possession. We therefore would take *ὑποστασις* in its simple sense; to signify the *foundation* on which expectation is grounded, and the *conviction* that *τα βλεπομενα*, the promises made, would be truly fulfilled. The application of this explanation to the words of the text will sufficiently confirm its truth; and, indeed, what is afterwards suggested in the sermon is perfectly congruent with it. Mr. Estlin, by enforcing faith as the essential and universal principle of right action through the whole of human conduct, evinces it to be his own rule of life; and thence strenuously recommends it to others.

His next discourse is on *Fortitude*—2 Peter i. 5: *Add, to your faith, VIRTUE*. Having introduced the subject with some pertinent remarks, and shown that *virtue*, in its primary and original signification, meant *courage* or *fortitude*, the preacher thus proceeds to exemplify its qualities and effects.

' You must, at first view, my friends, see the importance of this principle, the very high rank it holds in the scale of moral duties, and the absolute necessity of it, as the ground and foundation of every thing that is great, respectable and commendable in human characters or actions. It is not to be conceived that where this principle has taken deep root in the breast, the mind can be under the influence of any of those base and tormenting fears which fill it with anxiety or perturbation, expose it to the attack of temptation, or prevent it from exerting itself in such a manner as reason and conscience dictate. The want of this manly virtue is the cause of that unsteadiness, weakness, irresolution, and inconsistency, which we discover in some characters, and of that criminal conformity to the world, that indifference to religion, and that general depravity of principle, which we perceive and lament so much in others. A well founded fortitude—that is fortitude founded on a principle of religion, or fortitude added to faith—can alone impart that dignity, firmness, and consistency of character, which all must admire, but which so few are able to attain. The world in which we are placed, the strength of our animal appetites from within, and the allurements of pleasure from without, all conspire against our virtue, and call for the most strenuous exertions of a steady and manly resolution. We every day see characters, which we cannot regard but with some degree of contempt, though this com-

tempt may be mixed with pity, which we should have admired and respected, if this single quality had been found in their composition. How often have we lamented the want of it, in those who we knew were adorned with the most amiable dispositions of heart, but whose conduct, upon this account only, was marked by irregularity and inconsistency? Those who have made many observations on human life, will be very sensible how many actions of men, seemingly strange and unaccountable in creatures endued with reason, are to be traced up to this weakness of mind as their cause. Its influence upon those who are young and inexperienced in the ways of men, is frequently such as to lay a foundation for sorrow and remorse through the whole of future life. How often have we seen the amiable youth, the pride of his parents, the hope of his friends, and the delight of his acquaintance, upon his entering into life; and mixing with those whose opinions and practices he had been taught too indiscriminately to respect, become, in a short time, loose in his principles, irregular in his conduct, and insipid in his whole manner and conversation, merely because he wanted that fortitude of mind which is necessary to resist the influence of evil example, and which is the strongest guard and security of virtue? In most minds the dread of singularity, and the fear of incurring the censure of others, is a principle which has more than its due strength. We make our happiness to depend more upon the opinion which our fellow creatures form of our characters than we ought to do. It would be happy for us, if we were less afraid of their censure, and more of that of our own hearts and Almighty God; if we were less solicitous about their approbation, and more about the approbation of God and our own consciences. Young minds, in particular, (frequently at first through the excess of modesty and humility) are very apt to over estimate the good opinion of others; they ought therefore to be cautioned to be particularly on their guard against temptations from this quarter, and to be instructed to acquire that fortitude which will enable them to say *no*, when conscience cannot comply, and to bear the imputation of singularity, when others would lead them into courses which their impartial judgment must condemn. Every serious and conscientious person, who mixes much in the world, must expect sometimes to meet with the sneer of the profane, and the reproach of the unprincipled, for his zealous attachment to his duty. Fortitude must enable us to regard these with indifference. Virtue cannot stoop so low as to comply with all the customs and manners of a corrupt and degenerate age. Whatever be the maxims or practices of the world; how disagreeable so ever it may be to our feelings to be singular, we must not recede one step from the plain and direct path of duty.' P. 24.

In a subsequent part of this sermon, the subject of *duelling* is discussed, and very justly reprehended, as totally incompatible with the Christian religion—to be capable of receiving the blessings of which, the forgiveness of trespasses is an essential pre-requisite. That this barbarous practice is sinking in repute, the frequent sentences passed in our courts upon challengers are a favourable ground of presumption.

The subject of the third discourse is *Justice*, from MICAH vi. 8. In it the nature of the duty is well explained, and very powerfully recommended to practice. The same judgement will as strongly apply to the two next topics contained in the text; viz. *Mercy*, and *walking humbly with God*.

In the sixth sermon, from JOHN i. 45, &c. *the Character of Nathaniel* is developed, and many pertinent and useful observations interspersed: it concludes in the following manner:—

‘ Just and rational sentiments only, on subjects of religion, will not secure us the divine approbation. If we have not the courage and integrity openly to avow our principles, and to bear our honest testimony to the truth, the extent of our knowledge will serve only as the measure of the depravity of our hearts. In a scale of moral depravity, laid down with accuracy, what crime could stand at a higher degree than an habitual violation of truth, proceeding from a regard to self interest alone? That any human being should, in any circumstances, dare to approach the throne of the God of truth, holiness and justice, with insincerity in his heart, and falsehood on his lips,—my soul sickens at the thought.

‘ A zeal for religious opinions, under the regulation of prudence and benevolence, is certainly commendable; but let this principle sink into indifference, rather than stand in competition with a zeal for religious integrity. In whatever inviting form temptation may appear, may God, who searcheth the heart, grant that she may never prevail on any one of us to expose himself to that most dreadful of all censures, “Thou hast lied, not unto men, but unto God.” Under all the frowns of the world, let us, my brethren, solace ourselves with the reflection, that we have not paid this price—a price, at which mitres and thrones would be dearly purchased, for any temporal honours or emoluments whatever. Let us remember, that the rights of conscience are unalienable, because they are a trust, which God himself has committed into our hands. Let us, then, preserve them sacred and inviolate. Let us ever present to him, what he has a right to receive, the homage of a mind, pure, upright, and sincere, in its deepest recesses. Our religious integrity let us hold fast, and not let it go whatever else we may lose, that our own hearts may not reproach us as long as we live.

‘ Compositum jus, fasque animo ; sanctosque recessus
Mentis, et incoctum generoso pectus honesto:
Hæc cedo ut admoveam templa, et farre litabo. PERS.’

P. 100.

The subject of *Miracles* is discoursed on, from JOHN iii. 1, 2, in opposition to Hume, Paine, &c. on the ordinary grounds of evidence, and the position that the world is the work of God.

Returning in the eighth sermon to a practical subject, we have an excellent discourse, to prove *the Neglect of Advan-*

ages sinful, from JOHN xv. 22:—*If I had not come and spoken to them, they had not known sin: but now they have no cloak for their sin.* As also in the ninth, to show, from ACTS x. 34, that *God is no respecter of persons.*

Mr. Pope, a predecessor of Mr. Estlin in the same congregation, having appointed by his will a sermon to be preached annually on the first of May, chiefly for the benefit of young persons, the two next discourses—from *the Advice of David to Solomon*, in 1 CHRON. xxviii. 9; and *the Example of Christ in his Youth*, from LUKE ii. 52—are judiciously selected, and usefully applied.

The twelfth is a funeral sermon on the death of the preacher's colleague, Mr. WRIGHT, from HEBREWS xiii. 7. The exordium to this discourse is particularly solemn and affecting; and the last scene of that excellent man cannot fail to interest every well-disposed mind.

“The end of the conversation of that respectable person whose life had been a life of faith and obedience, was peaceful, serene, and happy. “Yes,” said he, “my course is finished, I have received the sentence of death, and I have received it with more calmness than I thought I could have done. You tell me, my friend, that I have no reason to be alarmed or terrified; I am not alarmed or terrified, but surely it is a solemn thing to die. I cannot go beyond sincerity, with this I can appear without terror before my father and my God; I ground my confidence on his goodness and mercy, as manifested by Jesus Christ. When I consider the advantages I have enjoyed, I have reason for diffidence and humility; do you pray, and request my friends to pray, that I may, with my animating prospects, preserve this diffidence and humility: farewell, do not be distressed yourself, nor suffer your family to be distressed on account of my situation; if I survive this night, I hope to see you in the morning.” P. 200.

“I saw him no more. He calmly, and with apparently very little bodily pain, closed his eyes in Jesus, in firm belief of a resurrection to eternal life. Farewell, for a short time, my highly honoured friend, and fellow labourer in the Gospel!

“We shall meet again in brighter scenes, and in regions of higher perfection and enjoyment. “Blessed are the dead who thus die in the Lord, for they rest from their labours, and their works do follow them.” “Comfort yourselves and one another with these words.” P. 201.

Considerations on the intermediate and future State constitute the subject of the subsequent sermon, from ZACHARIAH i. 5, in application to the commencement of the year. Having noticed the different opinions alleged on the condition of men between death and the resurrection, without positively venturing to decide, Mr. Estlin proceeds to truths that are indisputable, and the preparation which necessarily results

from them: To this, the fourteenth sermon is properly a sequel, and has for its subject *the future Happiness of the Righteous*, from HEBREWS xii. 22, 23. In this discourse, the author favours the doctrine of universal restitution, in opposition to *eternity of torment*, and *annihilation*; but with no argument beyond what has been often antecedently advanced. Nor, indeed, does he appear consistent with himself, when all that he asserts in the two next discourses—entitled, *Misery the Lot of the Wicked*, from ISAIAH iii. 11; and *the Wicked excluded from Heaven*, grounded on MATTHEW xxv. 10: *And the door was shut*—is taken in account.

The seventeenth and eighteenth are *Sermons for Charity-Schools amongst the Protestant Dissenters at Birmingham and Bristol*: the former, from HEBREWS ii. 10, denominated *All Things for God and by him*; the latter *on Education in general, with Remarks on female Education*, the text being taken from PROVERBS xxii. 6: both discourses are appropriate to their respective objects.

On the Danger of imitating fashionable Vices, from EXODUS xxxiii. 2, we have a very serious and well-pointed address. If the generality of preachers adopted the same direct and impressive manner, they could, we think, preach with greater effect.

The twentieth sermon, *on the Salutations of St. Paul*, drawn from ROMANS xvi. 7, is a very interesting discourse; and is followed by that which closes the volume, from PSALM cxxxvii. 5, 6, *explaining and recommending the Love of our Country*: the last was delivered on signing the preliminaries of peace.

To this general account of the volume, we have to add, that we have found it to possess considerable merit. Of the author, no person perusing them can fail to think highly. Where his sentiments differ from our own, we give him full credit for his writing from conviction; and, though we cannot always approve of his poetical expressions or citations, his style is adapted, in the main, to a popular audience; and we doubt not that much good has resulted from his labours.

ART. X.—*A Series of Plays: in which it is attempted to delineate the stronger Passions of the Mind. Each Passion being the Subject of a Tragedy and a Comedy. By Joanna Baillie. Vol. II. 8vo. 8s. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

‘AFTER a considerable interval of time’ (says miss Baillie) ‘from the publishing of the first, I now offer to the public a second volume of the “Series of Plays;” and, with it, my very grateful thanks for that indulgence and cheering approbation which has encouraged me to

proceed thus far in my work. I have to thank it, for that kind of reception which is best calculated to make a work go on well—praise mixed with a considerable portion of censure. I have to thank it, indeed, for that kind of reception which I solicited; conscious that it was the best in regard to my real interest, which I could receive, as well as the very best, in regard to my merits, which I could possibly presume to expect. If with this great advantage, beyond what I enjoyed when I wrote the first part of this work, I have fallen short in the second volume, of what might have been reasonably expected from me, I have only to say for myself that I have done my best, and that my abilities are in fault, and not my industry. The time indeed that has elapsed since the publication of the first volume, will, I trust, be considered as a proof that the portion of public approbation with which I have been favoured, has not rendered me presumptuous.

‘I know there are causes, why the second part of a work should be more severely dealt with, than that which has preceded it: but after what I have experienced, it would be ungrateful in me not to suppose that the generality of readers will take up this volume with a disposition to be pleased; and that they will also, in favour of one who has no great pretensions to learning or improvements, be inclined to extend the term of good-natured indulgence a little beyond its ordinary limits.’ P. vii.

‘The first volume of this work appeared with an unpromising title—for all plays are designed to delineate some passion: it came anonymously into the world; and the author was not even suspected. But these circumstances were all favourable to a work of such great and original merit: the reader was pleased; and the more so, because he had not been taught to expect pleasure; and anonymous writers, like the dead, are praised more willingly, than those who, by displaying their own powers, offend the inferiority of their contemporaries. This volume, we fear, will be taken up, by the generality of readers, rather with an expectation than a disposition to be pleased.

‘The first play in this volume, is a comedy on Hatred, as a companion to the tragedy I have already published upon the same subject. Of this I shall say little. I have endeavoured in it to shew this passion in a different situation, and fostered by a different species of provocation from that which was exhibited in *De Monfort*, and existing in a character of much less delicacy and reserve. I am aware, that it falls greatly short of that degree of comic effect which the subject is calculated to produce, and which a writer of truer comic talents would have given it.’ P. viii.

‘SCENE I.—*The open market-place of a small country town, a crowd of men, women, and children seen on the back ground; Margery and Countryman surrounded with several others are discovered talking on the front of the stage.*

‘*Margery.* Patron! pot-man an’ you will. As long as he holds
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the brown jug to their heads, they'll run after him an' he were the devil. Oh! that I should live to see the heir of the ancient family of Baltimore set aside in his own borough by a nasty, paltry, nobody-knows-who of an upstart! What right has he, forsooth! to set himself up for to oppose a noble gentleman? I remember his own aunt very well; a poor, industrious, pains-taking woman, with scarcely a pair of shoes to her feet.

Countryman. Well, well, and what does that signify, Goody? He has covered more bare feet with new shoes since he came among us, than all the noble families in the country, let his aunt wear what shoes she would: ay, and his bounty has filled more empty bellies too, though his granum might dine on a turnip, for aught I know or care about the matter.

Mar. Don't tell me about his riches, and his bounty, and what not: will all that ever make him any thing else than the son of John Freeman the weaver? I wonder to hear you talk such nonsense, Arthur Wilkins; you that can read books and understand reason: such a fellow as that is not good enough to stand cap in hand before Mr. Baltimore.

(The rabble come forward buzzing, and making a great noise, and take different sides of the stage.)

' Crowd on F. side.) Huzza! huzza! Freeman for ever!

' Mar. Yes, yes, to be sure: Freeman for ever! fat Sam the butcher for ever! black Dick the tinker for ever! any body is good enough for you, filthy rascallions!

' 1st Mob on F. side.) Ay, scold away, old Margery! Freeman for ever! say I. Down with your proud, pennyless gentry! Freeman for ever!

' Mar. Down with your rich would-be-gentry upstarts! Baltimore for ever! *(to mob on her side)* Why don't you call out, oafs?

(The mob on her side call out Baltimore, and the mob on the other Freeman; but the F. side gets the better.)

What, do you give it up so? you poor, spiritless nincumpoops! I would roar till I bursted first, before I would give it up to such a low-liv'd, beggarly rabble.

' 2d. mob on F. side.) They lack beef and porter, Margery. That makes fellows loud and hearty, I trow. Coats of arms and old pictures wont fill a body's stomach. Come over to Freeman-hall, and we'll shew you good cheer, woman. Freeman for ever!

' Mar. Ha' done with your bawling, blackimoor! what care I for your good cheer? none of your porter nor your beef for me, truly!

' 2d. Mob on F. side.) No, Goody! mayhap, as you have been amongst the gentry all your life, you may prefer a cup of nice sage tea, or a little nice rue-water, or a leg of a roasted snipe, or a bit of a nice tripe dumplin.

' Mar. Close your fool's mouth, oaf! or I'll cram a dumplin into it that you wont like the chewing of. Mr. Baltimore's father kept a table like a prince, when your poor beggarly candidate's father had scarcely a potatoe in his pot. But knaves like you were not admitted within his gates to see it, indeed. Better men than you, or your master either, were not good enough to take away his dirty trenchers;

and the meanest creature about his house was as well dress'd, and in as good order, as if it had been the king's court, and every day in the year had been a Sunday.

' 2d. Mob on F. side.) So they were, Goody; I remember it very well; the very sucking pigs ran about his yard with full bottom'd wigs on, and the grey goose waddled through the dirt with a fine flounced petticoat.

' Mar. Hold your fool's tongue, do! no upstart parliament-men for me! Baltimore for ever!

' Crowd on B. side call out) Baltimore for ever!

' 1st Mob on B. side.) Sour paste and tangled bobbins for weavers!

' 1st Mob on F. side.) Empty purses and tatter'd lace for gentlemen!

' Old woman on B. side.) We'll have no strange new-comers for our member: Baltimore for me!

' Old woman on F. side.) Good broth is better than good blood, say I: Freeman for me!

' Little Boy on B. side.) Weaver, weaver, flap, flap!

Grin o'er your shuttle, and rap, rap!

(Acting the motion of a weaver.)

' Little Boy on F. side. Gentleman, gentleman, proud of a word! Stand on your tip-toes, and bow to my lord!

(Acting a gentleman.)

' Mar. Go, you little devil's imp! who teaches you to blaspheme your betters? (She gives the boy a box on the ear: the mob on the other side take his part: a great uproar and confusion, and exeunt both sides fighting.)' P. 3.

This is an admirable opening. 'Any body,' says Johnson, 'can begin a poem abruptly, who has read the ballad of Johnny Armstrong.' It might be supposed that any dramatic writer of genius could begin a play well, if we did not remember how clumsily the most celebrated of those writers introduce two courtiers, or two gentlemen; and how inartificially the ancients *prologised* their plays with the history of the subject. The *Electra* of Sophocles, and the *Alchemist*, still remain unrivaled for the skill with which the story is developed in the first scene.

The following conversation between Baltimore and his wife explains the characters of the two candidates, and develops the passion upon which the play is founded.

' Mrs. B. And are you actually throwing away the last stake of your ruin'd fortune on a contested election?

' Balt. I will sell every acre of land in my possession, rather than see that man sit in parliament for the borough of Westown.

' Mrs. B. And why should not he as well as another? The declining fortunes of your family have long made you give up every idea of the kind for yourself: of what consequence, then, can it possibly be to you? I know very well, my dear Baltimore, it is not a pleasant thing for the representative of an old family declined in fortune, to see a rich obscure stranger buy up all the land on every side, and set

himself down like a petty prince in his neighbourhood. But if he had not done it, some other most likely would; and what should we have gain'd by the change?

' *Balt.* O! any other than himself I could have suffer'd.

' *Mrs. B.* You amaze me. He has some disagreeable follies I confess, but he is friendly and liberal.

' *Balt.* Yes, yes, he affects patronage and public spirit: he is ostentatious to an absurdity.

' *Mrs. B.* Well then, don't disturb yourself about it. If he is so, people will only laugh at him.

' *Balt.* O! hang them, but they won't laugh! I have seen the day, when, if a man made himself ridiculous, the world would laugh at him. But now, by heaven, every thing that is mean, disgusting, and absurd, pleases them but so much the better! If they would but laugh at him, I should be content.

' *Mrs. B.* My dear Baltimore! curb this strange fancy that has taken such a strong hold of your mind, and be reasonable.

' *Balt.* I can be reasonable enough. I can see as well as you do that it is nonsense to disturb myself about this man; and when he is absent I can resolve to endure him: but whenever I see him again, there is something in his full satisfied face; in the tones of his voice; ay, in the very gait and shape of his legs, that is insufferable to me.

' *Mrs. B.* Ha, ha, ha, ha, ha!

' *Balt.* What makes you laugh, Madam?

' *Mrs. B.* Indeed I have more cause to cry! yet I could not help laughing when you talk'd of his gait and his legs: for people, you must know, have taken it into their heads that there is a resemblance between you and him; I have, myself, in twilight, sometimes mistaken the one for the other.

' *Balt.* It must have been in midnight, I think. People have taken it into their heads! blind idiots! I could kick my own shins if I thought they had the smallest resemblance to his.

' *Mrs. B.* Ha, ha, ha, ha, ha!

' *Balt.* And this is matter of amusement for you, Ma'am! I abhor laughing!

' *Mrs. B.* Pray, pray forgive me! This is both ludicrous and distressing. I knew that you disliked this man from the first day he settled in your neighbourhood, and that, during two years' acquaintance, your aversion has been daily increasing; but I had no idea of the extravagant height to which it has now arrived.

' *Balt.* Would I had sold every foot of my lands, and settled in the lone wilds of America, 'ere this man came, to be the sworn possessor of my forefathers' lands; their last remaining son, now cramp'd and elbow'd round, in one small corner of their once wide and extensive domains! Oh! I shall never forget what I felt, when, with that familiar and disgusting affability, he first held out to me his damned palm, and hail'd me as a neighbour. (*Striding up and down the stage.*) Ay, by my soul, he pretends to be affable!

' *Mrs. B.* You feel those things too keenly.

' *Balt.* A stock or a stone would feel it. He has opposed me in every contest, from the election of a member of parliament down to the chusing of a parish clerk; and yet, damn him! he will never give

me a fair occasion of quarrelling with him, for then I should be happier. (*Striding up and down again.*) Hang it! it was not worth a pinch of snuff to me, whether the high road went on one side of my field or the other; but only that I saw he was resolved to oppose me in it, and I would have died rather than have yielded to him.

'Mrs. B. Are you sure, Baltimore, that your own behaviour has not provoked him to that opposition?

'Balt. (*striding up and down as he speaks.*) He has extended his insolent liberalities over the whole country round. The very bantlings lisp his name as they sit on their little stools in the sun.

'Mrs. B. My dear friend!

'Balt. He has built two new towers to his house; and it rears up its castle head amongst the woods, as if its master were the lord and chieftain of the whole surrounding county.

'Mrs. B. And has this power to offend you?

'Balt. No, no, let him pile up his house to the clouds, if he will! I can bear all this patiently: it is his indelicate and nauseous civility that drives me mad. He goggles and he smiles; he draws back his full watry lip like a toad. (*Making a mouh of disgust.*) Then he spreads out his nail-bitten fingers as he speaks—hah!

'Mrs. B. And what great harm does all this do you?

'Balt. What harm! it makes my very flesh creep, like the wriggings of a horse-leech or a maggot. It is an abomination beyond all endurance!' P. 8.

Every friendly feeling and friendly offer of Freeman's is rejected with pride, and sometimes insolence, by Baltimore. Mrs. Freeman, who has all her husband's vulgarity, without his goodness, commissions a lawyer to buy up Baltimore's debts, and arrest him. This kindles his indignation against Freeman to the highest pitch; for he had lately saved him from drowning. His debts, however, are paid, as he supposes, by a relation of his own wife; and immediately he challenges Freeman.—Miss Baillie now cuts the knot which she has drawn too tight to untie. The passion of Baltimore is become a madness which nothing less than such a miracle could cure—Truebridge rushes in to separate them, with the tidings that he has discovered them to be brothers.

'Now, don't think that I am going to whine to you about natural affection, and fraternal love, and such weaknesses. I know that you have lived in the constant practice of all manner of opposition and provocation towards one another for some time past: you have exercised your tempers thereby, and have acquired habits that are now, perhaps, necessary for you. Far be it from me to break in upon habits and gratifications! Only, as you are both the sons of one father, who now lies quietly in his grave, and of the good women, for I call them both good, who bore no enmity to one another, though placed in a situation very favourable for its growth, do for the love of decency take one another by the hand, and live peaceably and respectably together!'

If this play be deficient in comic effect, it is not because miss Baillie wants comic talents, but because the passion itself is not the fit subject of comedy: it is, perhaps, even of too black a hue for tragedy. A mind in so diseased and ulcerated a state can only be contemplated with pain. In the picture of a dying soldier, blood should be shown; but, if the open lips of the wound be laid bare, instead of sympathy, the painter would excite a sickening disgust. Hence it was that an English audience shuddered at *De Monfort*; and the more exquisitely true the delineation,—the more the colouring resembled life, the less could the representation be endured. Not that this was the sole, or even the chief, cause of the failure of the piece now referred to. While our theatres are of their present preposterous size, the success of a good play is physically impossible: rant only can be heard, and grimace alone be seen: we must be content with farce and foolery, and pantomime and Pizarro.

‘The subject of the other three plays is Ambition. It is with regret that I have extended the serious part of it to an unusual length, but I found that within a smaller compass I could not give such a view of the passion as I wished. Those passions, which are of a permanent nature, are the proper subjects of this work: such, I mean, as are capable of taking up their abode in the mind, and of gaining a strong ascendancy over it during a term of some length; I have therefore, in all these plays, given myself greater scope in point of time, than is usual with dramatic writers. But compared with ambition, perhaps, all other passions may be considered as of a transient nature. They are capable of being gratified; and, when they are gratified, they become extinct, or subside and shade themselves off (if I may be allowed the expression) into other passions and affections. Ambition alone acquires strength from gratification, and after having gained one object, still sees another rise before it, to which it as eagerly pushes on; and the dominion which it usurps over the mind is capable of enduring from youth to extreme age. To give a full view, therefore, of this passion, it was necessary to shew the subject of it in many different situations, and passing through a considerable course of events; had I attempted to do this within the ordinary limits of one play, that play must have been so entirely devoted to this single object, as to have been left bare of every other interest or attraction. These are my reasons for making so large a demand on the patience of my reader in favour of this passion, and if I am pardoned in this instance, there is little danger of my offending again in the same manner.’ p. viii.

Here, we think, miss Baillie has been unfortunate in her choice of story. These plays have all the disadvantages of historical dramas—the length, the continuousness, the succession of scenes, instead of the development and unity of action. But these disadvantages can only be counter-balanced by popularity of subject. The historical plays of

Shakspeare are read with little interest abroad, even in those countries where the public taste is healthy enough to value Shakspeare as he deserves. Goetz of Berlichingen, which delights a German audience, scarcely excited notice in its English dress. Neither could Wallenstein attract attention here, though, assuredly, no German play contains passages of such Shakspearian excellence, and though so admirably translated by one who ought not to have condescended to translate at all. But Ethwald is an imaginary character, and we cannot be reconciled to the chronological arrangement of his history. Nor is it only in structure that these tragedies are defective. Miss Baillie too frequently reminds us of a poet, whom it is dangerous to imitate: to imitate, indeed, is always injudicious. The man of genius, who condescends to copy, disappoints us by a twice-told tale; and he who has no genius mutilates what he borrows. In Ethwald, we are reminded of Ophelia, of Macbeth, of Richard, and Lady Anne. Everywhere, indeed, the copy is executed with a powerful hand; but still it is a copy.

The first of these plays concludes with the supposed death of Ethwald, whom a servant of the deposed king has stabbed. The self-deceiving character of ambition is finely preserved in this scene; for which it would be difficult to find adequate terms of praise.

Well I see

Thou look'st upon me as a dying wretch—
There is no hope.

Eth. Much will it profit thee
To be prepared as tho' there were no hope;
For if thou liv'st thou'lt live a better man,
And if thou diest, may heaven accept it of thee!

Ethw. O that it would! But, my good Ethelbert,
To be thus seized in my high career,
With all my views of glory op'ning round me—
The Western state ev'n now invites mine arms,
And half Northumberland, in little time,
Had been to Mercia join'd.

Eth. Nay, think not now, I pray thee, of these matters!
They mix uncouthly with the pious thoughts
That do become your state.

Ethw. I know it well;
But they do press so closely on my heart—
O I did think to be remember'd long!
Like those grand visitations of the earth,
That on its alter'd face for ages leave
The traces of their might. Alas, alas!
I am a powerful, but a passing storm,
That soon shall be forgotten!

Eth. I do beseech thee think of better things!

• *Ethw.* Thou see'st I weep.—Before thee I may weep.

(*Dropping his head upon his breast and groaning deeply.*)

Long have I toil'd and stain'd my hands in blood

To gain pre-eminence, and now, alas!

Newly arrived at this towering height,

With all my schemes of glory rip'ning round me,

I close mine eyes in darkness and am nothing.

• *Eth.* What, nothing, say'st thou?

• *Ethw.* O no, Ethelbert!

I look beyond this world, and look with dread

Where all for me is fearful and unknown.

Death I have daily braved in fields of fight,

And, when a boy, oft on the air-hung bough

I've fearless trode, beneath me roaring far

The deep swoln floods, with ev'ry erring step

Instant destruction. Had I perish'd then —

Would that I had, since it is come to this!

(*Raising up his hands vehemently to heaven.*)

• *Eth.* Be not so vehement: this will endanger

The little chance thou still may'st have for life.

The God we fear is merciful.

• *Ethw.* Ay, he is merciful; but may it reach—

O listen to me!—Oswal I have murder'd,

And Edward, brave and gentle—Ay, this bites

With a fell tooth! I vilely have enthral'd;

Of all his rights deprived. The loving Bertha;

Too well thou know'st what I have been to her—

Ah! thinkest thou a thousand robed priests

Can pray down mercy on a soul so foul?

• *Eth.* The inward sighs of humble penitence

Rise to the ear of heav'n when pealed hymns

Are scatter'd with the sounds of common air:

If I indeed may speak unto a king

Of low humility,

• *Ethw.* Thy words bite keenly, friend. O king me not!

Grant me but longer life, and thou shalt see

What brave amends I'll make for past offences.

Thou thinkest hardly of me; ne'ertheless,

Rough as my warrior's life has been, good thoughts

Have sometimes harbour'd here. (*Putting his hand on his heart.*)

If I had lived,

It was my full intent that, in my power,

My people should have found prosperity:

I would have prov'd to them a gen'rous lord.

If I had lived—Ah! think'st thou, Ethelbert,

There is indeed no hope?

• *Eth.* I may not flatter you.

• *Ethw.* (*holding up his clasped hands.*)

Then heav'n have mercy on a guilty soul!

Good Ethelbert, full well thou know'st that I

No coward am: from power of mortal thing

I never shrunk. O might I still contend

With spear and helm, and shield and brandish'd blade!
 But I must go where spear and helm and shield
 Avail not: —
 Where the skill'd warrour, cas'd in iron, stands
 Defenceless as the poor uncrusted worm.
 Some do conceit that disembodied spirits
 Have in them more capacity of woe
 Than flesh and blood maintain. I feel appall'd;
 Yes, thane of Sexford, I do say appall'd.
 For, ah! thou know'st not in how short a space
 The soul of man within him may be changed.' p. 230.

Ethelwald, however, recovers, and proceeds from crime to crime: his friends, and even his brother, become the victims of his suspicion; and he appears, at last, a most bloody and merciless tyrant—the veriest and most fearful wretch in his dominions—made fearful by his own cruelties, and still more cruel by fear, and growing superstitious in proportion to his guilt. At length, a party of thanes, who have broken from prison, force their way into his chamber. Danger rouses the tyrant to his former courage, and he falls in arms.

Ethw. Quick to thy villain's work, thou wordy coward,
 Who in the sick man's chamber seek'st the fame
 Thou dar'st not in th' embattled field attain!
 I am prepar'd to front thee and thy mates
 Were ye twice number'd o'er. (*Sets his back to a pillar, and puts himself into a posture of defence.*)

Her. The sick man's chamber! darest thou, indeed,
 Begrimed as thou art with blood and crimes,
 'Gainst man committed, human rights assume?
 Thou art a hideous and envenom'd snake,
 Whose wounded length, even in his noisome hole,
 Men fiercely hunt, for love of human kind;
 And, wert thou scotch'd to the last ring of life,
 E'en that poor remnant of thy curs'd existence
 Should be trode out i' th' dust.' p. 357.

In this second play, horror is too unremittingly excited: the dying struggles of prince Edward are heard; his murderers enter all bloody from the work; and the dead body is produced. Ethelbert is executed on the stage; a curtain, indeed, conceals the blow, but *'the axe is seen lifted up above the curtain, and the sound of the stroke is heard;'* and his head is held up by the executioner. The pain which a scene like this would occasion to young and unhackneyed minds, who attend to the play, and feel as the author controls them, would be insupportable. The following scene presents images still more dreadful.

' *First Cairl.* Thou hast been o'er the field?

' *Third Cairl.* I have, good friend.

' *Sec. Cairl.* Thou'st seen a rueful sight.

' *Third Cairl.* Yes, I have seen that which no other sight
Can from my fancy wear. Oh! there be some
Whose writhed features, fix'd in all the strength
Of grappling agony, do stare upon you,
With their dead eyes half open'd.—

And there be some, stuck thro' with bristling darts,
Whose clenched hands have torn the pebbles up;
Whose gnashing teeth have ground the very sand.
Nay, some I've seen among those bloody heaps,
Defaced and 'rest e'en of the form of men,
Who in convulsive motion yet retain.

Some shreds of life more horrible than death:
I've heard their groans, oh, oh!

' (*A voice from the ground.*) Baldwick!

' *Third Cairl.* What voice is that? it comes from some one near,

' *First Cairl.* See, yon stretch'd body moves its bloody hand:
It must be him.

' (*Voice again.*) Baldwick!

' *Third Cairl.* (*going up to the body from whence the voice came.*)
Who art thou, wretched man? I know thee not.

' *Voice.* Ah, but thou dost! I have sat by thy fire,
And heard thy merry tales, and shar'd thy meal.

' *Third Cairl.* Good holy saints! and art thou Athelbald?
Woe! woe is me to see thee in such case!

What shall I do for thee?

' *Voice.* If thou hast any love of mercy in thee,
Turn me upon my face that I may die;
For lying thus, see'st thou this flooded gash?
The glutting blood so bolsters up my life,
I cannot die.

' *Third Cairl.* I will, good Athelbald. Alack the day!
That I should do for thee so sad a service!

(*Turns the soldier on his face.*)

' *Voice.* I thank thee, friend, farewell! (*Dies.*)

' *Third Cairl.* Farewel! farewell! a merry soul thou wert,
And sweet thy ploughman's whistle in our fields.

' *Sec. Cairl.* (*starting with horror.*) Good heaven forefend! it
moves!

' *First Cairl.* What dost thou see?

' *Sec. Cairl.* Look on that bloody corse, so smear'd and mangled,
That it has lost all form of what it was;
It moves! it moves! there is life in it still.

' *First Cairl.* Methought it spoke, but faint and low the sound.

' *Third Cairl.* Ha! didst thou hear a voice? we'll go to it.
Who art thou? Oh! who art thou? (*To a fallen warrior, who makes
signs to him to pull something
from his breast.*)

Yes, from thy breast; I understand the sign.

(Pulling out a band or kerchief from his breast.)

It is some maiden's pledge,

' *Fallen Warrior.* (making signs.) Upon mine arm,

I pray thee, on mine arm.

' *Third Cairl.* I'll do it, but thy wounds are past all binding.

' *Warrior.* She who will search for me doth know this sign.

' *Third Cairl.* Alack, alack! he thinks of some sad maid!

A rueful sight she'll see! He moves again:

Heaven grant him peace! I'd give a goodly sum

To see thee dead, poor wretch!

(Enter a Woman *wailing and wringing her bands.*)

' *Sec. Cairl.* Ha! who comes wailing here?

' *Third Cairl.* Some wretched mother who has lost her son:

I met her searching 'midst the farther dead,

And heard her piteous moan.

' *Mother.* I rear'd him like a little playful kid,

And ever by my side, where'er I went,

He blithely trotted. And full soon, I ween,

His little arms did strain their growing strength

To bear my burden. Ay, and long before

He had unto a stripling's height attain'd,

He ever would my widow's cause maintain

With all the steady boldness of a man.

I was no widow then.

' *Sec. Cairl.* Be comforted, good mother.

' *Mother.* What say'st thou to me? know'st thou where he lies?

If thou hast kindness in thee tell me truly;

For dead or living still he is mine all,

And let me have him.

' *Third Cairl.* (aside to Second.) Lead her away, good friend! I know her now.

Her boy is lying with the farther dead,

Like a fell'd sapling; lead her from the field.

(*Exeunt Mother and Sec. Cairl.*)

' *First Cairl.* But who comes now, with such distracted gait,
Tossing her snowy arms unto the wind,

And gazing wildly o'er each mangled corse?

(Enter a Young Woman *searching distractedly amongst the dead.*)

' *Young Wom.* No, no! thou art not here! thou art not here!

Yet if thou be like these I shall not know thee.

Oh! if they have so gash'd thee o'er with wounds

And marr'd thy comely form! I'll not believe it,

Until these very eyes have seen thee dead,

These very hands have press'd on thy cold heart,

I'll not believe it.

' *Third Cairl.* Ah, gentle maiden! many a maiden's love,
And many a goodly man lies on this field.

' *Young Wom.* I know, too true it is, but none like him.

Liest thou, indeed, amongst those grisly heaps?

O thou who ever wert of all most fair!

If heaven hath suffer'd this, amen, amen!
 Whilst I have strength to crawl upon the earth
 I'll search thee out, and be where'er thou art,
 Thy mated love, e'en with the grisly dead.

*(Searching again amongst the dead she perceives the
 band round the arm of the fallen Warrior, and
 uttering a loud shriek falls senseless upon the
 ground.)* p. 271.

We do not object to such scenes upon any principle of false French delicacy. French taste is as execrable as French morality; but the effect which miss Baillie wishes to produce is not produced in proportion to the violence of the means. We believe the poet willingly, while the slightest portion of pleasure is blended with the feelings which he excites; but the mind instinctively makes an effort to escape from pain; and scenes, like these, force upon it the recollection that the whole is fiction.

The comedy upon Ambition, if it be not comic, is something better. A man, who has lost an amiable wife, marries a worthless woman of title, for the sake of her connexions, that he may become a member of parliament and be knighted. The same folly which has led him to commit this act of wickedness, makes him the dupe of a projector, and ruins him. So far all is well hung together:—but then comes a rich uncle from beyond sea! The same passion is the foundation of one of Beaumont and Fletcher's plays—the Noble Gentleman: but we feel some pride in observing the great superiority of our contemporary.

We have pointed out the faults which exist, or seem to us to exist, in these plays, with some diffidence of our own judgement. It is not upon a first or second perusal, or upon a single opinion, that we venture to censure what has so deeply impressed, and will hereafter so often delight, us.

Miss Baillie's dramatic powers are of the highest order. With the miserable stage-writers of the day, it would be insult to compare her; nor is it much commendation to rank her above Young, and Rowe, and Southerne, and such writers, whose fame is held, like certain titles and estates, by the courtesy of England. Above these, above Beaumont and Fletcher we will not hesitate to rank her—above even Massinger; for she equals those writers in the beauty of detached passages; and, in true delineation of character and uniform merit, is as far their superior as she is in moral principles. Why should praise be awarded only to the dead? She has a near approach to Shakspeare; and, if not connected with him by blood, has something superior to a mere family likeness.

ART. XI.—*The Lyrics of Horace: comprising his Odes, Epodes, and secular Ode; in English Verse; with the Latin Text revised, and subjoined. 2 Vols. 8vo. 15s. Boards. White. 1803.*

A NEW translation of the odes of Horace! This is the third which, within five years, we have been called upon to censure—we say, to *censure*; for once more must we declare our most unqualified disapprobation of the attempt. A painter or an engraver may copy the picture which he could not have designed; but translation requires higher powers; it exacts a command of language and metre, which, if not equal to what the original poet possessed, never can fairly represent his ideas; and if they be, we could almost wish to see them directed to nothing but original composition. The task itself is above the capacity of men of middling talents, and beneath those of genius. But, of all authors, Horace is the most untranslatable. The spirit of his odes is like æther: if you attempt to pour it from one vessel into another, it evaporates. Translation injures Homer; but it ruins the Roman lyrist. The former is a beauty whose Grecian dress may be changed for one of coarser texture and less graceful modulation; but she is still graceful herself, and still beautiful. The latter is an Italian courtesan, whose ornaments being stript off, and the paint washed from her face, she becomes sickly, hollow-eyed, and spiritless. Dissect and mutilate Homer—like a dead elephant, the parts will still be great; the skeleton or the stuffed skin will still show how noble was the living beast. But touch Horace, and you brush the down from the butterfly's wing.

'The intention of the present work' (says the translator) 'is to give such a translation of the odes of Horace, as may preclude the necessity of notes: putting the Latin, and the English reader, as it were, upon the same footing; and leaving them, on the supposition that they are equally instructed, to form their own comments. The difficulty of such an attempt will be readily admitted; as, to this end, the translation ought not only to be faithful, but poetical; each English ode breathing the same spirit as the original Latin. With what degree of success the attempt is made, the judicious reader must determine. How far a work of this nature may be useful in schools, I mean for the upper classes, who, having gone through the drudgery of construction, now begin to study the genius of their author, I shall leave to the judgment of those entrusted with classical education.'

'In the odes of Horace nineteen different kinds of metre occur. The translator has, in the course of this version, given one ode of each kind, in blank verse, of the same measure with the Latin, as nearly as the English language would allow. The first attempt so to translate any ode of Horace was made by our great poet, Milton.'

Let us take the first ode, as a specimen of the rhymed translations.

' Sprung from sires of royal race,
Thou my guard, my boasted grace,
Lov'd Mæcenæ! Some there are,
Whirling the Olympic car,
Who enjoy the dust they raise;
And whose wheels that almost blaze,
Passing the untouch'd goal nigh,
With the palm of victory,
Lift them to the high abodes
Of the earth-commanding gods.

' This man, by the fickle crowd
Rais'd, of threefold honours proud;
That, who in his gran'ry stores
All that's thresh'd on Libya's floors;
Him, who in paternal fields
Joyously the sickle wields,
Never shall thy pow'r persuade,
Rich as Attalus though made,
O'er Myrtoan seas to go,
Fearful in a Cyprian prow.

' Struggling with Icarian waves,
Afric's blast the merchant braves;
Then the rural scenes, and ease
Of his village home he'll praise;
Till, untutor'd want to bear,
He'll his shatter'd ships repair.
Some we find, who not disdain
Of old Massic bowls to drain;
And, to lengthen their regale,
Will the solid day curtail,
By some calm fount's sacred head,
Or beneath green arbuté laid.
Many in the tented plain
Take delight; or in the strain
Of loud trump, with clarion clear;
And in war, the mother's fear.
Braving the inclement skies,
His fond spouse the hunter flies;
Whether, with his faithful bounds,
After the view'd stag he bounds;
Or pursues the Marsian boar,
That defies his toils' weak pow'r.

' Ivy, meed of learned heads,
Thee to heav'n's high synod leads:
Me cool groves, the Nymphs' light throng,
Dancing Satyr tribes among,
Duly chanted in my strain,
Sever from the vulgar train;

If Euterpe condescend
Her enlivening flutes to lend,
And the tuneful Lesbian string
Polyhymnia deign to bring :
But shouldst thou enrol my name
Midst the bards of lyric fame,
Then my brows shall, as I rise,
Strike against the starry skies.' Vol. i. p. 3.

It is well that the original is annexed, as, without the Latin, the English would be sometimes unintelligible.

We will select a few scattered stanzas for such readers as are fond of riddles, to amuse themselves by unraveling.

'For his lov'd Ilia's bitter woes,
Boasting revenge, th' uxorious stream
The left-hand bank, broke loose, o'erflows,
Incurring the dread Godhead's blame.

'Thinn'd by their parents' guilt, youth's train
Shall hear our shameful battles told ;
Of swords which civic murder stain
Shall hear, fit scourge for Persians bold.' Vol. i. p. 11.

'Brave, and victor of the foe,
All thy desp'rate bands could do,
Thou leading on their fleets, their horse,
Tuneful Varius shall display,
Soaring in his epic lay
With pinions of Mæonian force.' Vol. i. p. 27.

'Thy minutes scorn not, happy boy,
In dance and sweet love to employ,
While stern bear-age youth flies.' Vol. i. p. 39.

'Venus, mother of the Loves,
Who frequently so cruel proves ;
With the youthful Deity,
Offspring of Theban Semele ;
And licentious wantonness,
Bid me again Love's pow'r confess.
Glycera, who shines more bright
Than Parian marble's purest white,
Fires my bosom : me too fires
Her petulance which so inspires ;
With the charms her face displays,
On which too dang'rous 'tis to gaze.' Vol. i. p. 79.

'Thy barr'd windows less frequently shake
With hard blows of the frolicsome rake,

Who no more strives thy slumbers to break :
Its threshold thy door keeps,

‘ That on hinges so pliant would move :
Less and less the sad ditty you prove
Of: “ While starves the night thro’ thy true love,
His Lydia unkind sleeps ! ”

‘ Thou, grown old, in thy turn shalt lament
The rude sparks ; while thy sad steps are bent
To lone alleys, when moonlight is spent,
And bleak the North-wind sweeps.

‘ Then such hot flame, such lustful desire
As is wont the mad horse-dams to fire,
Shall thy ulcerous liver acquire,
While constant thine eye weeps.

‘ With fresh ivy gay youth will be drest,
With dark myrtle their brows they’ll invest ;
But down Hebrus, of winter the guest,
Old wreaths throw in dry heaps.’ Vol. i. p. 97.

Enough ! Enough ! we need bring forward no more counts in the present indictment. Guilty of high treason against English verse and English syntax—guilty of wilful murder upon the body of Quintus Horatius Flaccus.

Now then for the specimens of blank-verse, ‘ of the same measure with the Latin, as nearly as the English language would allow.’

‘ The West-wind’s glad return, and spring sharp winter thaw ;
And engines launch the dry hulks in the wave :
Nor at his hearth the hind, nor cattle in their stalls
Now joy ; nor whiten with hoar frosts the plains.’ Vol. i. p. 21.

‘ By all the Gods, pray tell,
Why Sybaris with love you to his ruin haste !
Why, Lydia, does he shun
The sunny field, to dust and heat habituated ?
Why soldier-like not ride
Among his compeers, or the mouths of Gallic steeds
Break in with bitted reins ?
Why does he dread to feel the yellow Tiber ? why
Like viper’s blood avoid
Cautious the wrestler’s oil ? Nor livid are his arms
With weapons borne ; who, fam’d,
The discus oft, the spear beyond its bound oft threw.
Why doth he lie conceal’d,
As sea-born Thetis’ son was said to do, ere Troy’s
Lamented fun’rals ; lest
Man’s garb should force him to the fight, and Lycian bands ?’ Vol. i.
p. 35.

The fourteenth ode is in the metre of Collins's Ode to Evening, but most wretchedly written.

' O ship, shall fresh waves bear thee back to sea !
O what art thou about ? Firmly remain
In port. Dost thou not see
Thy side stript of each oar,

' And thy mast shiver'd by the furious South ?
Thy sail-yards shriek too, and without its cords
Thy keel can scarce endure
Surge most impetuous.' Vol. i. p. 59.

' Before the sacred vine, Varus, no tree shouldst thou
Plant on kind Tibur's soil, or round Catillus' walls.' Vol. i. p. 77.

' Thee, measurer of the sea, of earth, and of the sands
Which know not number, of poor dust
Some scanty portions near Matinus' coast enclose,
Archytas ! nor it thee avails
To have th' aerial roofs explor'd, and with thy mind
Trac'd the arch'd pole, about to die.' Vol. i. p. 107.

' In adverse fortune fail not to maintain
An equal mind ; in prosp'rous fortune too
Alike from joy that's prodigal
Refrain ; O Dellius, who art sure to die !' Vol. i. p. 155.

' More safe, Licinius, wouldst thou live, by not
Tempting for ever the wide sea ; nor yet
Hugging too close, while rocks thou cautious dread'st,
Shores that are dang'rous.' Vol. i. p. 183.

This the author calls a Sapphic ! We seriously recommend him to consult Mr. Maule, the aurist. Something must be wrong in his ears.

' Not in my mansion glare
Or ivory, or gilded roof :
Not beams Hymettian rest
On pillars in far Afric hewn.' Vol. i. p. 225.

' If at its source thou hadst the Tanais quaff'd,
Wedded, O Lyce, to some barb'rous mate ;
Yet might'st thou grieve, me, stretch'd at thy rude doors,
To native North-blasts to expose.' Vol. ii. p. 63.

' 'Tis for the wretched, not t' indulge in love,
Nor with rich wine wash care away ; or feel
Dejected at the lash of a sharp uncle's tongue.' Vol. ii. p. 75.

' A monument I've rais'd than brass
 More lasting, than the royal site
 Of pyramids more high ; which storms
 And the vain North can't harm, nor lapse
 Of num'rous ages, nor times' flight.' Vol. ii. p. 157.

' Him, O Melpomene ! whom thou
 Hast at his birth once mark'd with eye benign,
 Not Isthmian strife shall signalize/
 A wrestler ; neither the courageous steed
 Him in Achaian car shall draw,
 A conqueror ; nor him, a chieftain grac'd
 With Delian foliage, shall war's feats,
 Because the vauntful threats of kings he spurn'd,
 Exhibit at the Capitol.' Vol. ii. p. 179.

' The snows pass off : now to each field returns
 Grass, and to trees their leaf.' Vol. ii. p. 205.

' When that Cæcubian kept for festive treats,
 Joy'd at victorious Cæsar,
 Shall I beneath thy high dome (so Jove wills)
 Quaff with thee, dear Mæcenas :
 The lyre, awak'ning song, combin'd with flutes ;
 That Doric, and these Phrygian ?' Vol. ii. p. 295.

' Pettius, it joys me not as heretofore
 Soft verses to indite,
 Disquieted with cruel love :
 That love, which so endeavour'd to inflame
 Me, beyond other youths,
 With ev'ry beauty I beheld.
 This is the third December, since I ceas'd
 For Inachy to rage,
 That has the woods of honours stript.
 Ah, me ! (for of such folly I'm asham'd)
 What a town's-talk I've been !
 And of those feasts I do repent
 At which my silence, and my languishment,
 The love-sick swain declar'd,
 Together with my deep-fetch'd sighs.' Vol. ii. p. 303.

' A horrid tempest has condens'd the heav'ns ;
 Show'rs, and snows bring the sky down :
 Now the seas, now the woods
 Sound with the Thracian North-blast. Let us, friends,
 Take of the day advantage :

While yet our limbs are nerv'd,
 And it befits, let Age his furl'd brow smooth.
 Wine prest, when my Torquatus
 Was consul, bring thou forth.' Vol. ii. p. 313.

' Wherefore voluptuous sloth has such oblivion spread
 Throughout my inmost senses,
 As tho' with thirsty throat those goblets I had drain'd
 Bringing Lethæan slumbers,
 Courteous Mæcenas, thou dost vex me, asking oft.
 For, to their end to perfect
 Commenc'd iambics, me a pow'r, a pow'r forbids,
 That song I lately promis'd !' Vol. ii. p. 317.

' Another age in civic broils is wearing now away,
 And Rome is overthrown herself by her own pow'r;
 Which not the neighb'ring Marsi e'er were able to reduce,
 Nor yet the threat'nings of Porsenna's Tuscan band,
 Nor Capua's rival bravery, nor valiant Spartacus,
 Nor false Allobrogian for revolution ripe.' Vol. ii. p. 323.

' Why pour intreaties upon unlockt ears ?
 Not rocks to naked mariners more deaf
 Does wintry Neptune lash with rising surge.
 What, at Cotyttian mysteries reveal'd,
 At free Love's rite, unpunish'd shalt thou laugh ?' Vol. ii. p. 341.

These abortions we have bottled for the inspection of the curious. Let it not, however, be supposed that such metres are incapable of harmony, because this wretched translator, who can write no metre, has tortured language into such shapes. The rhymeless stanza, which Collins has made popular, is uncouth and unintelligible in Milton.

ART. XII.—*Sermons on various Subjects, preached at the Octagon Chapel, Bath. By the Rev. John Gardiner, D. D.*
 8vo. 8s. Boards. Hatchard. 1802.

THESE discourses are of various degrees of merit. From the subject of the first, we augured ill of the whole volume; for what can be a more strange topic for a minister of the Gospel to discuss in his pulpit, than the comparative merits of the two governments of France and England? The chief defects in the monarchical government of France, both with regard to matters of state and matters of religion, were notorious to the French nation, and severely felt by

all. The nobility had become atheistic from the evident absurdities that were established in the national faith; while the middle orders had grown rich, and felt the absurdity which separated them from the nobler class. This change in the national sentiments was known to men of discernment fifty years ago; but the French court not only neglected the proper period of applying the antidote, but in many instances increased the evil, and precipitated the catastrophe that ensued, by the part they espoused in the American war, and the encouragement given to republican ideas.

At the commencement of the revolution, indeed, hopes were entertained of some melioration in the state of the country.

‘But, alas! how soon was the flattering illusion to vanish? How soon was the lofty voice of exultation and joy to be exchanged for the low murmurs of mortification and regret? The placid stream which by gentle swells might have diffused fertility and cheerfulness on the adjacent soil, and have afforded a prospect highly gratifying to the eye—became a rapid torrent, whose tremendous inundations bore down every thing before them, and exhibited a scene uniformly disgusting—a scene of misery, devastation, and ruin. No sooner had heaven conferred on this people her most precious boon, than they converted it into abuse against its author. Considering the progress they had made, they might at least have paused a while—they might have contemplated with gravity and awe the momentous work in which they were engaged—but they rushed on madly and precipitately; they bounded wantonly over all barriers in pursuit of a phantom, which continued to elude their grasp. Instead of confining themselves to a prudent limitation or just regulation of the powers of the monarch, they abolished monarchy altogether. Instead of maturely examining into, and removing the defects of the ancient structure, they inconsiderately pulled it at once to the ground—and attempted to raise another of such heterogeneous materials, that it would not form a solid and compact mass; it tottered at the foundation, and threatened its projectors with ruin. Under a pretence of acquiring new lights, and making new discoveries in the moral world, they set at nought all the labours and researches of antiquity. The settled principles on which civil society had hitherto existed, in their rage for novelty they overturned—In establishing the rights they forgot the dispositions of man. Was man naturally inclined to do what he ought, undoubtedly too great freedom of action could not be allowed—but since the contrary is the case, since it has been found that men left to their own wills are prone to error and mischief, it has been admitted, that the only parent of genuine liberty, is rational restraint—and that to secure the undisturbed possession of some rights, a surrender of others must be made.’ p. 16.

The preacher has, however, in other discourses, evinced

juster notions of his duty, and the high character in which he appears when addressing a Christian audience.

'In this place' (he says) 'we stand by the authority and in the presence of one who is no respecter of persons, in whose sight all mankind are equal, the same compound of dust and ashes, of misery and corruption; and who has no love nor hatred, no predilection nor aversion, but for righteousness and iniquity. The majesty and sanctity, then, of him whom we serve will not permit us here to make honourable mention of any thing but of virtue, nor dare we represent persons as illustrious, unless their principles and conduct appear to be religious. Far from being servile panegyrists of the great, the ministers of a crucified Christ know no one after the flesh—they consider titles, riches and honours, in themselves as empty vanities and trifles; nay, frequently worse than trifles, in being rendered vile and contemptible by the use their possessors make of them.' P. 258.

With this opinion of his duty, he may be justly vindicated in guarding his hearers against the pretensions set up in favour of natural religion; and, though we cannot think the pulpit the place for a eulogium on an author so replete with profaneness and indecency as our immortal dramatist, yet the abominable trash imported from Germany, and dressed up by no mean hands for an English audience, is a proper subject of reprobation.

'What then, have we not to fear for the depravation of the moral taste, as well as the intellectual soundness of the present age? Nay, what a sorry imputation have not both already incurred by suffering in a moment of sentimental delirium, the sublime productions of the immortal father of the drama, our country's glory, whom no Briton ever names or thinks on without a mixture of pride, veneration and love—by suffering, I say, his works to be superseded in a manner by the flimsy, whining, ephemeral productions of men calling themselves illuminated philosophers, whose professed ambition it is to raise the temple of reason on the ruins of the altar of Christ? It is true, (and we cannot be too thankful for it,) that the minds of our mixed or popular audiences, are not yet prepared to receive with patience the open avowal of such an attempt; but for that very reason its mischief the more challenges our vigilance—there is a greater cause for anxiety and alarm. It is a poison which is operating secretly and slowly, and hence but too securely. The most specious artifices are employed to conceal its effects, and to make it allure whilst it destroys. All the aid of pageantry and splendour of machinery that can dazzle the eye and captivate the imagination is called into its service; to impose on the understanding we have an ostentatious parade of piety. Solemn appeals are made to the God of nature in the most fascinating and highly finished periods. And then to reproach the morals of Christians, the self-taught barbarian, the child of nature is represented in an array of virtue, which neither history nor experience will sanction. Sentiments are put into his mouth which neither the author nor his English satellite with all their pene-

eration and genius, could have discovered in their full extent but for that revealed will of God which they thus obliquely try to depreciate.

‘It can afford no pleasure to a ministry or brotherly love to expose particular works or their authors in this place to public animadversion; but who are to be advocates in the cause of religion if its ministers betray a timid indifference when its bulwarks are clandestinely assailed? Who is to preserve a citadel if the garrison sleep whilst a powerful enemy is at the gate? And what is to be feared for the sacred and civil constitution of a state, when senators whose wisdom and power are pledged to be employed in establishing or ameliorating the laws, exercise their ingenuity and skill in applying foreign engines to undermine their foundation or weaken their influence? Ought men who from their eminent talents should arise the first to discountenance principles which have ruined so many other countries, to be the most forward in giving them even a partial or sinister support in their own? And however charitably we may be disposed to construe the views of such, would it not be a criminal pusillanimity to conceal the fatal effects that may flow from them?’ P. 233.

Before the audience of the Octagon-chapel at Bath, these allusions to the occurrences of the day might, perhaps, have been introduced, and be found calculated to keep up an attention which is disposed to droop on hearing displayed the more general and consoling topics of the Gospel. Yet the preacher who adopts this method of preaching, must be contented with the ephemeral applause of his hearers, and not expect to perpetuate that praise by means of the press. Those who have heard these discourses will be gratified in the perusal of them; and they bear sufficient testimony of the zeal of the author in the duties of his sacred avocation.

ART. XIII.—*An Apology, for differing in Opinion from the Authors of the Monthly and Critical Reviews: on 1. Literary Communications. 2. Variolous and Vaccine Inoculation. 3. Dr. Jenner's Discovery of Vaccine Inoculation. 4. The Means of preventing Febrile Contagion. 5. The Establishment of charitable Institutions. By John Coakley Lettsom, M. & LL.D. 8vo. 2s. Mawman. 1803.*

IF any spirit has been moved on this occasion, it is one of disappointed vanity and heart-felt mortification. Accustomed to flattery in one circle, and forbearance in another, it is a crime to ‘hint a fault, or hesitate dislike.’ Indignation, imperfectly smothered under the humble title of ‘an Apology,’ and the modest expression of ‘a feeble voice,’ is ready to burst forth, and can be calmed by no common

submission. We mean not to stoop to any; but will tell Dr. Lettson his faults, as well as any other author; nor will we conceal that mean mark of a little mind—overweening vanity. We saw it in its germ, have watched its opening bud, till it is expanded into its blossom. The literary life of Dr. Lettson may be well styled the *progress* of vanity: the termination is yet to come; but we have ample materials for the subject.

We first offended him by recommending a mean of preserving from infection, which might, in his opinion, encourage dram-drinking. We *know* that many have been preserved from fevers by it; and *believe* that it will not be injurious, except where a strong propensity prevails, which would seek for other motives, were this not offered. This method has done more service than the absurd analogical thermometer, which admits of no application, but what might have been offered in a few words.

The second offence was laughing at the ridiculously meretricious style of his pamphlet in favour of the cow-pox. It is before the public; and we still say, that the style is unworthy of a philosopher and a physician. It is peculiarly disgraceful to a sect which anxiously disclaims every ornament of language and manner. We asserted that Dr. Lettson stated his motive to be the satisfaction of his friends, who would form no opinion till he had given *his*. He has produced the sentence, and it still says so. The context expresses it still more strongly. We laughed at the affected expression of 'periphery of the indelible ink,' &c. They are instances of the bathos which will be laughed at till the *contrast* is forgotten. 'To rouse attention,' he tells us in one passage, that 'he adopted a more impressive tone.'—The impression it made will not soon cease to excite ridicule.

With respect to the cow-pox, the more grievous offence, we need not repeat what we have already said. Did the question rest on what Dr. Jenner offered, we would still, as we then did, consider this vicarious disease as insufficient, and the pretence as undeserving notice. Dr. Jenner published the fact, *already known*, and pointed out the application. The doctrine was established, and cleared of its difficulties by Dr. Woodville and Dr. Pearson. Yet Dr. Lettson is angry that we will not worship his idol, when its divinity and power are abolished.

Dr. Lettson may, in future, save himself the parenthesis '(by whom?)' He does not want the answer: it was asked *ad captandum vulgus*.

One other offence remains. We did not perceive the

likeness of the *silhouettes*, and it has called forth the most disgraceful insinuations. As we never visit Billingsgate, we cannot reply to these 'flowers of speech;' and, in this part of the contest, we can only say—as a gentleman once did when attacked on the Thames with similar language—'Go, my good friend, you have the best of it.' On consulting the thermometer—for it again makes its appearance at page 46—we could not find 'abuse' among the effects; but we conclude it must be *below 0*.

We believe we first saw Dr. Lettsom in the year 1769, and will say nothing of the alligator stuffed, or the show of empty bottles, or pickled serpents. Since that time, we have seen him sometimes more nearly, sometimes at a greater distance; but we cannot add, that, from what we have seen, our respect for his talents has increased. We have sufficiently defended ourselves; nor will any invectives, or any insinuations of his '*feeble voice*' (feeble indeed) draw from us another word. In the cause of science, we will speak boldly; and, when we again find him poaching in other grounds, we will, as we have done, expose him.

Mr. Creaser's pamphlet has just reached us, and will be noticed in our next. Attacked as we are on all sides, we have still, we trust, like the porcupine, quills for every assailant.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

ART. 14.—*Observations and Reflexions on the Impropriety of interfering with the internal Policy of other States.* By the Rev. William Benson, A. M. of St. Mary Hall, Oxon. In a Letter addressed to the Right Hon. Henry Addington, Chancellor of the Exchequer. 8vo. Debrett. 1802.

SOME remarks lately made in the London newspapers, derogatory to the character of the chief consul of France, form the object of this author's censure and alarms, and have engaged him in this persuasion to preserve peace in the true spirit of peace. All this is well; but the offending parties will not perhaps so clearly perceive that they are bound to a gentle and forbearing conduct by the sacrament of baptism,

which the author has very strangely introduced as having some connexion, we know not what, with the element of water which divides France from England.

ART. 15.—*Review of Public Affairs since the Commencement of the present Century.* 8vo. Knight and Triphook. 1802.

The principal object of this Review is to defend the conduct of the new administration in concluding peace with France. The author's tone is moderate and argumentative; but, as the objections which have been offered to the peace are chiefly of the *prospective* kind, the time is not yet fully arrived when we can judge fairly between the contending parties. In the mean while, it will not be denied that our ministers were justified in attempting to negotiate, when they contemplated the complete annihilation of the continental and maritime coalition which had been formed against France, the new vigour assumed by the government of that country, the successive desertion of the great powers with which we had been in offensive alliance, the insignificance of those objects which, by continuing the war, were yet attainable; and the alarming increase of our own debt, and consequently of our taxes. These our author has fairly stated as sufficient grounds to render peace desirable; and the praise he bestows on the manner and terms according to which our ministers negotiated, is certainly not overstrained. It is utterly inconceivable that we can enter upon a new war with more disadvantages, than we should have experienced, had we continued the last, upon the principles, and with the administration, by whom it was conducted.

ART. 16.—*A Treatise on the Functions and Duties of a Constable; containing Details and Observations interesting to the Public, as they relate to the Corruption of Morals, and the Protection of the peaceful Subject against Penal and Criminal Offences.* By P. Colquhoun, Esq. LL.D. &c. 8vo. Mawman. 1803.

The utility of compilations of this kind is too obvious to require demonstration; and the present is recommended by an arrangement peculiarly convenient for consultation on the quickest emergencies. So much depends on the activity, zeal, and integrity, of the inferior police officers, that too much pains cannot be taken to make them acquainted with the nature of their office, and the bounds of their power. These are explained in the present treatise with brevity and precision; but we cannot peruse the whole system of our police without lamenting, with our author, its many imperfections in *practice*. One reason of this seems the multiplication, of late years, of the duties of a constable; and another is perhaps the want of a proper gradation of official authority from the chief-magistrate to the lowest officer. Much likewise will be found to depend on the selection of fit and proper persons to discharge the office of constable: the practice of *substitutes* is liable to many objections, which have not escaped the attention of this indefatigable magistrate; and the hints which he has occasionally thrown out on this and other subjects connected with a well-regulated and *effective* police, will, we hope, lead to some salutary changes. In the mean

time, there can be no member of the community to whom this treatise will not appear highly interesting.

ART. 17.—*A Political Essay on the Commerce of Portugal and her Colonies, particularly of Brasil in South America. By J. J. de Cunha de Azeredo Coutinho, Bishop of Fernambuco, and Fellow of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Lisbon. Translated from the Portuguese. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons.*

This essay relates chiefly to the Portuguese colony of Brasil; and the author, who has long resided there, continues to do so. The value and importance of the Brasils are very considerable; and a most enlightened liberal policy dictates all our author's advice.

With respect to Great Britain, independently of her general connexion with Portugal, and the necessity of securing her from the protection of those who wish to hold her in the same vassalage as Spain and Holland, the hemp and the timber of Brasil may be of great importance. The peace, it is observed, which France and Spain condescended to conclude with Portugal, was insidious and delusive; hastily completed, lest Great Britain should take the Portuguese colonies under her guarantee. As this last measure may again become necessary, the translator offers this work to the English reader, to point out the value of this portion of America. It indeed appears truly important.

RELIGION.

ART. 18.—*A Sermon preached at the Parish Church of St. Andrew, in the city of Norwich, upon June 1, being the Day of General Thanksgiving for Peace. By the Rev. Lancaster Adkin, A. M. and published at the Request of the Parishioners. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

A rhapsody on the peace, which, however suited to the cathedral where it was delivered, will find few readers out of the diocese. 'The dreadful plot in Dublin—the fleet of infidels in Bantry-Bay—worldly-minded faithless allies, and the sudden death of the Russian, their most powerful supporter—the little fleet conducted by Cornwallis—the navies of Holland, France, and Spain—Jervis—circulating cash—mutiny—De Winter—lord Duncan, &c. &c. &c. Surely the congregation must have been more deeply impressed with the glories of war than the blessings of tranquillity, from such references and arguments. We are obliged to the preacher, however, for giving us the motives for what has generally been called the dismissal of the minister from office, but which is here more gently denominated his resignation. We may presume that the writer had his intelligence from the late secretary of war, who was then member for Norwich; for he exhorts us

'To pay the tribute of grateful respect so justly due to that astonishing man, that persevering statesman, and to his able assistants, who, having guided the helm with so much steadiness and skill when the vessel was in danger (even to the fight of haven, whither she was bound), resigned the fruit of their hard labors with a virtuous self-denial; and from a disinterested attachment to their country's wishes,

that there might be no obstacle to the desired rest from bloodshed, and from increasing burthens. The revengeful enemy, prodigal alike of human life, as smarting from his powerful exertions, acknowledged his merit, by refusing seriously to negotiate till his ostensible influence was removed.' P. 8.

The greater part of the nation seems very well satisfied, that not only his ostensible, but his real, influence is removed; and, if this act be owing to the revengeful enemy, it is a revenge which must nevertheless be regarded as an act of kindness.

ART. 19.—*A Thanksgiving Sermon for the Peace: preached in the Parish Church of Stockton upon Tees, June 1, 1802. By John Brewster, M. A. &c. Published by Request. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

The writer proves, in this discourse, that our miseries have arisen from ourselves; and that our deliverance is to be ascribed alone to the benevolent and unmerited assistance of God. For a cause adequate 'to that dread explosion which overturned the church of France,' we are properly referred to her doctrines: and we sincerely believe there is real ground of alarm to every sincere protestant who duly weighs the following facts, with their probable consequences.

'Events have been brought to pass, the most unforeseen and unexpected. Anarchy and atheism have been found so destructive to the human race, that the most discordant means have been used to repel them. We have seen the arms of the descendant of Henry VIII. a pious and a protestant prince, employed to restore the dominion of Rome: we have seen Christians, even in the native land of Christianity, fighting under the banner of Mahomet. These are a few, among the many unprecedented occurrences of the war. When we view them, we are struck with the mysterious lesson which they convey. Mysterious indeed to us, who "see through a glass darkly;" but opening, no doubt, some wonderful changes in the economy of the world, preparatory to the return of him who proclaimed "peace on earth, goodwill towards men." P. 22.

ART. 20.—*The Necessity of future Gratitude and Circumspection, to prove a due Sense of past Mercies. A Sermon preached on Tuesday, the first of June, 1802; being the Day appointed by Royal Authority, for a General Thanksgiving to Almighty God, for the Return of Peace. By the Rev. Sir Adam Gordon, Bart. M. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1802.*

A long story about monopolisers and methodism. Though some of the apostles were at first taken from the lower walks of life, yet, says the preacher, they 'did not professedly follow all kinds of low employments (as do many itinerant teachers of the present day), no more than the regularly established clergy of our own church.' Yet, as far as we have any information from Scripture, nothing can more resemble the conduct of these itinerant teachers, with respect to manual labour, than the conduct of the early itinerant teachers of Christianity. We read of their going out to catch fish, and of their manufacturing tents; occupations, which, nevertheless, were not conceived to degrade

them in the eyes of the early Christians. The fastidiousness of our modern brethren has, however, produced a different estimation, and induced them to set an additional value upon other employments, which are more consistent with worldly honour. The extraordinary price of animal food, though there be a smaller demand for the navy now than of late, may easily be accounted for without referring to 'secret machinations of worthless characters.' When there are so many mills for making money in the country, it cannot be supposed that men will give as many pounds of beef for paper as they did formerly for real cash. The paper system has destroyed the old regular supply of the markets, determined on the quantity of stock, and the wants of the breeder. The banker is at hand to supply the wants of the latter; and the time of bringing his cattle to market rests at present entirely with himself. But surely these are not fit subjects to be engrafted on a thanksgiving sermon.

ART. 21. *Performance of Vows, the True Thanksgiving. A Sermon preached at Christ Church, Surrey, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802, the Day of General Thanksgiving for the Peace; and at St. Michael's, Crooked Lane, on Monday, June 21, 1802, before the Worshipful Company of Fishmongers, being their Election Day. By Thomas Ackland, M. A. &c. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

'My brethren, I say, as I hope and trust, let it be considered and remembered, that although we have observed,—it is true, and God be thanked, yea, let God's holy name' (be thanked, we presume); 'it is true, I say, we have all reason to praise the majesty of our God for the invaluable blessing of national peace.' We agree entirely in this *ipse dixit* of the preacher; but, if he had confined his '*I say*' to the pulpit or the hall of the fishmongers' company, the public at large would have no great reason to regret the loss of this discourse.

ART. 22. *A Sermon, preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, on Thursday, June 3, 1802, before the Society of Patrons of the Anniversary of the Charity Schools. By John Pridden, M. A. F. S. A. &c. Published at the Request, and for the Benefit of the Society. With an Appendix, containing a brief Account of the Society. 4to. 1s. 6d. Nichols and Son. 1803.*

This sermon was composed at a very short notice, and published at the request of the society before whom, as well as before seven thousand charity-children who attended upon the occasion, it was preached. The Song of Solomon affords the text; the love of Christ to the church is celebrated; and England is supposed to have been preserved from the danger which threatened her, on account of her extensive charity and benevolence.

ART. 23. *Divine Authority, conferred by Episcopal Ordination, necessary to a legitimate Discharge of the Christian Ministry: A Sermon preached before the University of Oxford, May 16, 1802. By George Stanley Faber, A. M. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.*

The title-page announces the old dispute between episcopacy and presbyterianism, the two modes of church government established by

law in this kingdom. Now, as the law of the land equally establishes both, and defines the boundaries within which each shall exercise its authority, it seems rather incongruous for a minister of the southern part of the island to claim all the divine authority for his own order, and to deny it to the ministers of the sister church. The writer is not, however, disposed to assert his claims by a breach of Christian peace and union; and it must give pleasure to every reader to peruse the following sentiments delivered from the pulpit of the university of Oxford, and sanctioned by the *imprimatur* of the vice-chancellor.

‘Permit me however here to observe, that the proper mode of reclaiming those, who have erred, is calm, gentle, dispassionate expostulation; not fiery, overbearing, tyrannical invectives. The latter disgraceful practice is equally unworthy of a man, and of a Christian: it irritates, instead of softening; it provokes, instead of appeasing animosities. Persecution, that most favourite child of Satan, constantly makes either a martyr, or a hypocrite. It is a devilish engine, fit only for the nefarious purposes of pagan and papal tyranny; an engine, which ought to be rejected with abhorrence, and viewed with detestation, by every pious protestant.’ p. 20.

ART. 24.—*The Anniversary Sermon of the Royal Humane Society, preached at Grosvenor Chapel, April 4; and, with local Alterations, at Holy Roods, Southampton, June 20; and at St. Helier’s, in the Island of Jersey, July 18, 1802. By R. Valsey, D.D. F.A.S. &c. To which is added, an Appendix of Miscellaneous Observations on Resuscitation. By the Society. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1802.*

In a dedication to the king, the preacher informs us that he is a Jersey-man, and of course an anti-Gallican and anti-regicide. Much equally superfluous matter is introduced into the notes; but the very laudable efforts in support of a most useful institution, should disarm criticism of all its severity; and we feel great pleasure in observing that the royal humane society continues to receive that patronage from the public to which it is so justly entitled.

ART. 25.—*Counsel for Christians. A Sermon: preached in the Parish Churches of Saint Mary the Virgin, Aldermanbury, and Holy Trinity, in the Minories, on Sunday, October 24, 1802. By the Rev. R. Caddick, M. A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.*

This is a probationary discourse comprising much good counsel. The following remarks, from a candidate, deserve the consideration of every person who is concerned in parochial elections.

‘The circumstance which at present occupies your attention, namely, the selection of a minister, will, I hope, be under the immediate direction of God; that he may lead your choice to one who may be sensible of the arduous undertaking.

‘I will now request your patience whilst I mention one thing more; which is, that as you are brethren who ought to be of one flock and of one family, a party spirit may not prevail with that bitterness, which too frequently accompanies occasions of this nature.

‘Every one, in a case of such importance, in which each individual

is so much concerned, should be allowed to follow the leadings of conscience; and I am sure it is paying ourselves but a bad compliment to suppose that we would wish, directly or indirectly, to influence our neighbours to go against its dictates.

'The candidates must all feel greatly favored by the support of friends; it must excite our gratitude to the highest degree; but I am sure every Christian minister will be grieved, should it be productive of animosity.' p. 46.

ART. 26.—*A Sermon, preached before John Sayer, Esq. Commissary for the Parts of Surrey, and the Clergy of the Deaneries of Southwark and Ewell, in Surrey, at the Annual Visitation holden at Kingston-upon-Thames, on the 29th of May, 1800; and published by their Desire: by William Foster, D. D. 4to. 1s. 6d. Payne.*

A proper degree of moderation in the expression of our sentiments, and the right of government to interpose, with a view of inhibiting or restraining them on certain occasions, are inculcated in this discourse, which treats, with great liberality, the event solemnised on the day in which the meeting of the clergy was held. To the following observation, we give our hearty concurrence. 'Whilst Christianity so forcibly recommends peace, moderation, obedience, and subjection to the laws of one's country, it cautiously avoids, for itself, any discussion of, and equally seems to prohibit, in respect to its teachers, all interference in questions of government.'

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 27.—*An Essay on the Yellow Fever of Jamaica, dedicated, by Permission, to his Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence. By David Grant, M. D. 8vo. 3s. Robinsons.*

It is not easy to add to the history of the disease, or to exaggerate its fatal influence. Dr. Grant writes with an apparent knowledge of his subject; and his practice appears judicious and discriminated. It consists in previous bleeding, but not in a very violent degree; and this evacuation is confined to the two first days. He relieves the bowels by an active laxative, and then immediately orders the bark. Mercury, he thinks, is useless or injurious. In the contest respecting this medicine, we cannot engage, as experience can afford us no assistance. Some judicious arguments against the abolition of the slave-trade are prefixed.

ART. 28.—*Strictures on Dr. Grant's Essay on Yellow Fever. By Thomas Dancer, M. D. 12mo. 6d. Murray and Highley. 1802.*

Dr. Grant opposed the treatment of the yellow-fever by mercury, and adopted the plan of Rush. We can hardly conceive that a difference of opinion could have excited so much severity as these Strictures display; and indeed it appears from the work itself that the provocation was a different one. Dr. Grant, however, is treated with little mercy; and numerous are his grammatical and other errors, which are pointed out in this little pamphlet.

- ART. 29.—*The English Olive-Tree ; or, a Treatise on the Use of Oil and the Air Bath : with Miscellaneous Remarks on the Prevention and Cure of various Diseases, Gout, Rheumatism, Diabetes, &c. By the Rev. William Martin Trinder. The second Edition, much enlarged. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Dwyer. 1802.*

This singular farrago of medicine and divinity does not require any extensive examination. It is desultory and superficial ; nor will the medical student, or the practitioner, reap any benefit from the practical directions, even with the formulæ annexed. Our readers are acquainted, we suppose, with the air-bath, which consists in exposing the body to the air of the room, or, in inclement weather, in suffering the vapours to escape, which exhale from the body while in bed. The oily frictions may be disregarded when we can attain the luxury of clean linen. Notwithstanding the numerous authorities referred to, we have not yet found a single clergyman who has excelled as a practical physician.

- ART. 30.—*Anatomical Plates of the Bones and Muscles, diminished from Albinus, for the Use of Students in Anatomy, and Artists ; accompanied by Explanatory Maps. By Robert Hooper, M. D. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1802.*

These plates were designed to accompany the last edition of the 'Anatomist's Vade Mecum ;' but were not finished in time. Should they be approved, others, representing the situation of the viscera, the course of the nerves, blood-vessels, and absorbents, will follow.

The size will prevent them from being highly useful ; but they may give general views, and assist the recollection of ideas, which larger plates or dissection may have communicated. The 'maps' are coloured outlines with references. The execution is neat and peculiarly distinct, in the narrow compass to which the engraver has been confined.

- ART. 31.—*Hints for the Improvement of Trusses ; intended to render their Use less inconvenient, and to prevent the Necessity of an Understrap. With the Description of a Truss of easy Construction and slight Expence, for the Use of labouring Poor, to whom this little Tract is chiefly addressed. By James Parkinson. 8vo. 9d. Symonds. 1802.*

We truly wish well to this very benevolent design, and think our author's improvements merit particular attention. They render the truss peculiarly easy and convenient.

EDUCATION.

- ART. 32.—*The Dog of Knowledge ; or, Memoirs of Bob, the Spotted Terrier : supposed to be written by Himself. By the Author of Dick the little Poney. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Harris.*

The life of little Bob, the spotted terrier, comprises a series of ad-

ventures of no trifling nature. Many an animal of our own species, whose history has been published through the partiality of his friends, has not afforded a biography of half Bob's importance.

ART. 33.—*A Father's Instructions; adapted to different Periods of Life, from Youth to Maturity; and designed to promote the Love of Virtue; a Taste for Knowledge; and attentive Observation of the Works of Nature: by Thomas Percival, M. D. &c. Part the Third.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

We always contemplate with a tender regret the last words of a benevolent author; and we greatly fear that these will be the last. The same benevolence, the same affectionate regards, the same rational and fervent piety, pervade the present instructions, which formerly commanded our esteem and commendation. We need not enlarge further on this little work, which particularly merits the attention of our younger friends; nor would we mutilate any part by an extract. If we were to 'hint a fault,' it would be with respect to the maxims. They are sometimes so gravely 'ironical,' as to be mistaken for real instruction.

ART. 34.—*The Arts of Life: 1. Of providing Food, 2. Of providing Cloathing, 3. Of providing Shelter: described in a Series of Letters. For the Instruction of young Persons: by the Author of Evenings at Home.* 12mo. 2s. Johnson. 1802.

This is an instructive and entertaining little volume for children of a middle age.

ALGEBRA.

ART. 35.—*Geometrical Propositions demonstrated after the Manner of the Ancients. Translated from the Latin of the late Dr. Stewart.* Glendinning.

This is the title-page to a part only of the volume in which these propositions are contained; and it is the beginning of a series of tracts on mathematical subjects, published by professor Leybourn, of the royal military-college in Buckinghamshire. The propositions are followed by Playfair's Origin and Investigation of Porisms; Wallace's Geometrical Porisms; Hamilton's Essay on the Principles of Mechanics; Landen On the Mechanic Powers, as far as relates to Equilibriums; Hellin's Force of oscillating Bodies on their centres of Suspension; Ivory's Rectification of the Ellipsis; Herschell On the Nature of the Sun and fixed Stars; Rumford On Heat by Friction and its weight; Gough On the Variety of Voices; Swayne on Glauber's Salt; Collier on Iron and Steel; Tennant On the Use of Lime in Agriculture. All these are tracts of acknowledged merit, and deserving the attention of mathematicians and philosophers.

ART. 36.—*A Synopsis of Data for the Construction of Triangles. By Thomas Leybourn, Editor of the Mathematical and Philosophical Repository and Review.* Glendinning. 1802.

The editor has collected a very great variety of data, with the intention of publishing the best solutions that may be transmitted to him. The design is very laudable; and if he is well assisted in a

work of such immense labour, it will be a great acquisition to the mathematical world.

POETRY.

ART. 37.—*The Iliad and Odyssey of Homer, translated into English blank Verse by the late William Cowper, Esq. The Second Edition. With copious Alterations and Notes. Prepared for the Press by the Translator; and now published with a Preface by his Kinsman, J. Johnson, LL.B. &c. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 12s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

The first edition of this performance was considered with some attention, in the fourth volume of our New Arrangement, pp. 241, 361, 560. Its beauties and defects were pointed out with no sparing hand; and, with some degree of reluctance, we were obliged to acknowledge that the latter preponderated. Of the numerous instances adduced of defective passages, we are pleased to observe, that but few remain in the present publication. We trace some alteration, indeed, in almost every page—particularly in the *Odyssey*—and almost always for the better. The performance, it must be allowed, was susceptible of much improvement; and this it has acquired by means of a lucky circumstance, or no less than a *providential interference*, according to the editor's opinion.

Mr. Cowper, who had long laboured under an unhappy depression of spirits, was roused from his lethargic melancholy by the sight of Wakefield's edition of Pope's *Homer*, designedly placed in his way by the editor; and in which the propriety of some passages in his translation were applauded, and others questioned. This again recalled his former favourite employment, and stimulated his mental powers; and he accordingly pursued his task of revisal and correction with assiduity and pleasure. Various interruptions, indeed, occurred; but it was finally completed, and left for publication, by the translator.

That the uncomfortable sensations which harassed the mind of so worthy a man were, by these means, diverted and relieved, yields us unfeigned satisfaction. As admirers, however, of his good sense, taste, and poetical abilities, we cannot but repeat the regret with which we concluded our former critique (vol. IV. p. 569)—that the time dedicated to *Homer* had not been given to original composition.

ART. 38.—*Pitt and his Statue; an Epistle to the Subscribers. Also, Lord B—— and his Motions, &c. &c. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walker. 1802.*

It is not our present object to examine the propriety of erecting a statue to Mr. Pitt, during his life. It might, perhaps, have been better delayed till the real merits of the ex-minister had been more clearly ascertained, as well as his actual share in the late conduct of government. As may be supposed, the subject is seized as the vehicle of ridicule and satire; and, without interfering in the propriety of the proposal, we may say it is a 'lucky hit.' With respect to the lines in which the satire is couched—*sunt bona—sunt mala plura*. Wit is supplied by gross invectives, and humour by the most indelicate, the most illiberal, allusions. Mr. Pitt would, probably, rather be the sub-

ject of these invectives, than the author of them; and, could nothing more persuasive be advanced against the plan, every good man would acquiesce in it. We have said, however, *sunt bona*. Some of these we meant to have selected; but, on a second revival, cannot find a single stanza with which we would sully our pages.

ART. 39.—*The Middlesex Election; or, Poetical Epistles, in the Devonshire Dialect. By Mr. Joseph Budge, in London, to Lord Rolle, at Weymouth. Edited by Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walker. 1802.*

This is said to be the production of Mr. Budge, 'the actual squire, and attendant, and mentor of my lord Rolle.' It may be so; but we believe it would be difficult to find a Devonshire farmer who could not write at least more naturally in his own dialect. What is not prose, according to Molière, is verse; and whatever is not legitimate English, according to this publication, is supposed to be Devonian. It is 'a patched and pye-bald' dialect, to which every province seems to have contributed. The substance is the hackneyed subject of the Middlesex election, without one particle of wit or humour. There is not a line that we are tempted to transcribe.

ART. 40.—*The Scum Uppermost when the Middlesex Porridge-Pot boils over!! an heroic Election Ballad: with explanatory Notes. Accompanied with an admonitory Nod to a blind Horse. 4to. 2s. No Bookseller's Name. 1802.*

A poetical attack on sir Francis Burdett and his political friends, from the pen—if report say true—of the author of *Salmagundi*, and *Bubble and Squeak*; and who, from the titles of his works, appears to be *clerk of the kitchen* to the Muses. On the present ballad we cannot bestow much approbation; nor, perhaps, does the author expect it: the subject is handled with the coarsest species of invective, and in a manner beneath his talents. It may serve the temporary purpose of a party, but can add nothing to legitimate fame.

ART. 41.—*The Converts: a moral Tale. Recommending the Practice of Humanity, the Utility of Sunday-Schools, and a due Observance of the Lord's Day. By J. Bisset, Museum, Birmingham. 8vo. 6d. No Publisher's Name.*

No design can be more laudable than that which produced the publication of this little book; no execution can be worse than the poetry contained in it. The only particle of praise we can offer, is that of having meant well.

ART. 42.—*The Lapse of Time, a Poem for the New Year. By Rebecca Edridge. 4to. 1s. Robson. 1803.*

It is always matter of sorrow to us, when we cannot bestow commendation on the offspring of the female Muse; for, although grown grey in the service of literature, we have not yet forgotten that it is the duty of man to act *politely*—as the phrase is—to the ladies. But how shall we offer any thing in favour of such lines as the following, with which Mrs. Edridge opens her poem? We can only promise, that, if she write a better copy of verses against the conclusion of the present year, we will readily speak better of them.

' Upon the Tempest's wing, riding sublime,
Time presses on!—among past ages mixt,
No more to us the year which yesterday
Fulfill'd, than that which first beheld the morn
When yon resplendent orb assum'd on high
His radiant sphere, and this our pendant globe
From chaos call'd, burst into creation.' p. 3.

ART. 43.—*A Poetical Sketch.* 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1802.

' The author of the following pages may perhaps appear to some to incur the imputation of vanity, when he asserts, that no solicitation of friends was the motive of the present publication—Literary ambition alone has produced, what will probably in a little time be consigned to dust and cobwebs—This is the first essay of youth and inexperience; and the author derives some degree of satisfaction from having employed a few vacant hours, in a composition, which although it may not insure one sprig of laurel, may plead some innocent efforts of fancy which were in unison with the emotions of his heart—The work itself is a trifle; censure will probably usher it into the world of literature, and the seal of oblivion may very soon be stamped upon it—But the author aspires not to the higher regions of Parnassus, and the flowerets which he has scattered in the lap of the community, have been gathered at the bottom of the hill.' p. i.

It is the easiest thing in the world to deceive ourselves, with respect to the extent of our acquisitions, and the value of our own abilities. The writer of this little poem supposes, as we see, that he has picked his flowers at the foot of Parnassus, instead of which he has plucked them from the garlands of those who occasionally culled them on its top. There is hardly one thought in this Poetical Sketch, for which we could not turn elsewhere, in an instant. We do not mean, however, by this remark, to discourage our youthful poet; for his borrowed images are often prettily combined; and, besides, much greater men than himself have found it difficult to separate between their own inventions and those of others. Time and application are the principal improvers of juvenile writers, of all descriptions. If the poet before us submit patiently to their discipline, we see no reason why 'censures should usher' his future works 'into the world of literature.' The following is a fair specimen of his present merit:

' Along the green, the hamlet's festive day
Made toil relax, and poverty look gay:
There, as at blush of morn, the pealing bells
Charm'd the sweet echoes of responsive dells:
The sun-burn'd Gypsy, and her tawny train
Forsook the tented shed, beside the lane;
Oft, have I mark'd the paltry rag of red
Half-flung in careless mood across her head:
Oft, the short smutted tube, and vapouring smoke
That from her lips, in quick succession, broke;
And as her jet-black locks, her keen dark eyes
Flash'd on credulity, and mark'd the prize:

Intent she gaz'd upon the lines of fate,
 And cloth'd the poor man in the dress of state,
 Oft, in pretended divination, bold
 She spread the palm, and promis'd heaps of gold :
 Oft 'mid the gaping ring, her magic power
 Reveal'd to village-maids the bridal hour ;
 One silver-piece could fix their future doom,
 'This, gain'd a marriage : less than this, a tomb.' P. 4.

DRAMA.

ART. 44.—*The Merchant of Guadalupe: a Play, in three Acts. As it was performed at the Theatre-Royal, Margate, on Tuesday, the 5th of October, 1802. From the French of Mercier. By John Wallace, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Carpenter. 1802.*

Mr. Wallace feels himself a little more angry than, perhaps, is necessary, at some animadversions that have been made upon the drama which he has translated. He should have considered that it is not in the power of a newspaper-editor to investigate every fact minutely which finds its way into his diary. He could not travel to Margate for information, while his journal was working off. The remark was, most likely, sent to the office for insertion, and there received as true. It would have been wise in the translator to have buried it in silence, contenting himself with the reflexion of Scripture—'an enemy hath done this.' As the piece is now in print, it becomes our duty to deliver an additional opinion upon it, by premising, that, whatever be its praise or blame, it belongs, almost exclusively, to Mercier, and in but a very small degree to Mr. Wallace, his translator. The characters, then, are few, the plot simple, and the diction sentimental; consequently it will please less on the stage, than in the closet: there is nothing in it that can fail to do honour to the heart of the author; yet there is nothing in it that will render it a favourite of the public.

ART. 45.—*Juvenile Friendship; or the Holidays: a Drama, in three Acts. To which is subjoined The arrogant Boy: a dramatick After-Piece, in Verse. Intended for the Representation of Children. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1802.*

As an innocent amusement for children, we may speak of 'Juvenile Friendship;' but we can afford it no literary praise. A young lady of nineteen, and a lad of seventeen, are not proper associates in acting with children of eight and nine:—Caroline and Augustus must have sighed for more important characters.

ART. 46.—*Il Bondocanti, or, The Caliph Robber: a Comic Opera, in three Acts. Performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Dibdin. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees.*

A bankrupt merchant bidding his daughter unveil, that a stranger may look on her, to see if he should like her for his wife, is too perfectly European to suffer us to fancy ourselves for a moment in Bag-

dad; and yet this little piece is so fairly on a par with many of our other farces, that it would hardly be kind to find fault with it. We have not felt displeased in reading it; yet we can give no reason why it should have pleased us. We can only say, with—

‘ *Cbebib*. What is thy name?

‘ *Haroun*. Il Bondocani.

‘ *Cbebib*. ‘Tis like thyself, a strange one.’ p. 16.

NOVELS, &c.

ART. 47. — *Independence. A Novel. By Gabrielli, Author of the Mysterious Husband, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 16s. Boards. Lane and Newman. 1802.*

The principal circumstance in this novel is, that the hero acts, for a series of years, the mountebank, and then turns out to be a peer. The performance, in general, deserves as much praise as is due to most works of this nature; for the narrative is not without interest, though at times a little too prolix. If we were to find any fault, it would be, that Egbert Irwan had not been left as he was found; for he certainly is a superior genius, as a Flemish rope-dancer: but there is nothing worth commending about him, as a British marquis.

ART. 48. — *The Orphans of Llangloed. A modern Tale. By the Author of Lusignan. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Lane and Newman. 1802.*

These volumes will not be an unwelcome present to the circulating library: the style is sprightly, and the events pleasing. Mr. O'Shallaghan's bulls are perhaps sown too thickly; but the easy language in which they are delivered, will convince the reader that the author is perfectly at home in what is supposed to be the character of an Irish fortune-hunter.—We shall present him with a small quotation.

‘ Countess of Glendower to Mrs. Middleton.

‘ Oh my dear, my honoured friend! have you not suffered by the knowledge of my perilous situation? You heard of my unaccountable disappearance from West Cliff; but you know nothing of the dangers, the horrors I have encountered.

‘ After our ball, lady Callenberg requested I would lead the way to the carriage. That detested wretch O'Shallaghan advanced hastily, and seized my hand: he said the coach was not at the door, but only a few yards off. Not doubting the truth, I advanced with him. He handed me into a chaise, saying he supposed it was of no consequence which carriage I went in. I certainly saw lord Callenberg's livery: one of the servants must have been in the plot. O'Shallaghan cried —“Drive on,” as he hastily jumped in after me; and, before I could even make an exclamation of surprise, his handkerchief was crammed into my mouth, so that I was almost suffocated.

‘ When we got out of the town, he put his head out of the window; and I heard a voice say—“It's all safe, sir.”

“That is well,” said he: “and now, honey, you may breathe then; I would not, by Jasus, hurt your sweet face, not for the world!”

—only because women are apt to talk, d'ye see, and I wanted you to be kept quiet."

"For heaven's sake, sir!" said I, "what can your intention be?"

"Only a trip to the North, honey," replied he; "and I'll make you as good a husband as ever an Irishman did: and I've got fifteen hundred a year, and a park in the county of Tipperary."

"You cannot imagine, Mr. O'Shallaghan," said I, "that I can ever consent to be your wife?"

"Oh, I have got your consent!" replied he; "and I have got you, and that's better, ducky; and if any body should overtake us, I can kill half a dozen in a trice. There's myself and two footmen, that's two—and the postillion, three: I thought there were four of us, but I believe the fourth must have staid behind. But we're enough to manage six; and if they should happen to kill us, I'd be revenged, for they'd be hanged for murder: and besides, my sweet creature, you would not wish me harm, for I love you dearly—and I'll make you a good husband, I tell you, and twenty per cent. of your money, too!"
Vol. ii. p. 119.

ART. 49.—*The Reprobate. A Novel. Translated by the Author of The Wife and the Mistress, &c. The original by Augustus la Fontaine. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Lane and Newman. 1802.*

A powerful warning is held out, in these volumes, to all youthful readers, not to let even the most innocent passion get the better of their reason and their sense of duty. More than sixteen years of the life of Suzette Engleman are spent in misery, because she yielded to the voice of love, unsanctioned by, and unknown to, her friends. No less powerful an admonition is also here conveyed to parents in the fate of Valdenburg. That hapless young man drags on the best part of his existence in sorrow and despair, not from any demerits of his own, but from a capricious dislike to his person, entertained by the authors of his existence. The other characters in the work are a pleasing relief to these circumstances of sorrow, particularly the innocent hobblehorses of the two Englemans. On the whole, the performance is such a one as we can speak of with considerable satisfaction.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 50.—*A Companion to the Almanack, containing an Explanation of the Saints' Days and Holidays, with biographical Sketches of the Persons, and historical Accounts of the Events, on which the Festivals are founded. To which is prefixed an Introduction, explaining the chronological and astronomical Terms, and the general Contents of modern Almanacks; with a brief Enquiry into their Origin. By John Audley. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Mawman.*

To a certain class of readers, this tract may afford some information; but, to render it generally useful, the author should have abridged it into a size convenient to bind with almanacks, which he might have done by omitting some prolix accounts of saints, and particularly of events well known to the public in general. His narratives

and lives are, however, entertaining, and, we must add, impartial—for the author informs us that he is a *dissenter*!

ART. 51.—*Remarks on modern female Manners, as distinguished by Indifference to Character, and Indecency of Dress; extracted chiefly from 'Reflections political and moral at the Conclusion of the War, by John Bowles, Esq.'* 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1802.

This pamphlet has had an extensive circulation, and amply deserves it. The author bestows his censure on the manners of the fashionable female world with equal freedom and justice, and evinces the bold spirit of a moralist, by a direct attack on licentiousness in the *biggest* situations. There appears an egregious error, however, in a quotation given in pp. 10, 11, which, if it cannot be amended, had better be omitted. The royal pair, who exhibit 'a pattern of conjugal bliss,' certainly 'met *before* the formation of their sacred engagement.' The *remainder*, we think, might as well be passed over, in considering this subject.

ART. 52.—*Guide in a Tour to the Watering Places and their Environs, in the South East of Devon.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Trewmans, Exeter.

We think we perceive an error in the title; for, if our recollection do not deceive us, the places, and the country, which are the author's object, lie on the *west* of the Exe: this, however, is of little importance. Several bathing-places are well described; and—what adds to the value of the work—the picturesque scenes in the neighbourhood, which the visitor may reach in a ride or a walk of no great extent, are carefully pointed out. We may expect a little of the exaggeration which usually accompanies a description of our native scenes; nor is the author always free from the cant of the picturesque tourist. These errors, however, if they exist—for we can scarcely recall scenes, which it is so long since we visited—are not glaring or offensive; and we think the reader may, in general, depend on these descriptions, as faithful and natural.

The etchings are very indifferently executed. We may express a hope, that, since the author has wrote his title-page, his thoughts were occupied in planning 'A Guide in a Tour on the South-East.' Such a work we should be well pleased to see, from an observer so acute and ingenious as Mr. Hyett.

ART. 53.—*Remarks on the French General Reynier's Narrative of the Campaign in Egypt. By an Officer employed in that Country.* 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

The Remarks before us are candid and dispassionate. General Reynier is convicted of misrepresentation, from even his own statements, and the most authentic accounts; and his narrative is followed very closely. We have already enlarged sufficiently on this subject in our last volume; and shall only add, as a specimen of the author's manner, his refutation of M. Reynier's statement of a slight affair which happened near Alexandria, almost in sight of both armies: it was not noticed in our former articles.

‘Most fortunately for the credit of this advanced corps, it is a fact, notorious to the whole English army, (and to most of the French too,) that it consisted entirely of the 30th regiment, calculated in M. Reynier’s own statement, on its arrival in the country, at 300 men, and by this time, reduced within that number. Not an Englishman of any other description was within reach of the scene of this little affair, and how the number of the enemy attacking them is diminished, when stated at 400 men, may be easily conjectured, when four companies of grenadiers, and a whole battalion of the 75th demi-brigade, are acknowledged to have formed this detachment. It amounted, in reality, to nearly 700. The object of this detachment was solely to dispossess the advanced corps, viz. the 30th regiment, of the ground it occupied, thereby to impede the besiegers in their approaches towards the place. These troops could no more be injured by any fire from the English army, than the 30th could be affected by a fire from the French. They were equally without the reach of musketry from either party, and had the business wholly to themselves. ‘Tis true, that these troops ascended the hill, with “the step of a charge,” but that “they drove in the English advanced corps,” is not quite so clear, for this advanced corps, was the only force from which a shot was fired on them. The 30th regiment, in short, received their charge, completely put them to the rout, killed a great proportion of them, drove them down the hill much faster than they ascended, and followed them a considerable part of the way towards their own works. This is a truth, known to every individual of the Egyptian army, and equally well known to M. Reynier himself, to whom, if this should ever fall in his way, it will not prove of the smallest information.’ p. 43.

ART. 54.—*A Letter to the Proprietors of East India Stock, respecting the present Situation of the Company’s Affairs both abroad and at home; in Answer to the Statements given in the latter Part of the third Report of the Special Committee of the Court of Directors respecting private Trade, dated the 25th of March, 1802. 8vo. 3s. Hatchard. 1802.*

Singularly opposite are the opinions respecting the real state of the Company’s finances, and the mode by which their trade should be conducted. A fugitive pamphlet has not, however, a sufficient claim on us, to call for a minute investigation of the subject. The author reasons with apparent candour and propriety, and seems to be sufficiently acquainted with his subject; but, were we to notice his work particularly, we could point out the sources of some errors which would greatly alter the result of his calculations.

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

MARCH, 1803.

ART. I.—*The Divina Commedia of Dante Alighieri: consisting of the Inferno—Purgatorio—and Paradiso. Translated into English Verse, with preliminary Essays, Notes, and Illustrations, by the Rev. Henry Boyd, A. M. &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

WE announced, in our fifty-ninth volume, a translation of the *Inferno* by Mr. Boyd, who has at length completed the *Divina Commedia*. Sensible of the revolting difficulties which opposed his success, we were induced to overlook numerous blemishes, and to encourage him by a general commendation, not undesired.

The 'Divine Drama' *entire* is introduced by a *dedication* to lord Charleville, which informs us that the *first* part 'has met with favour' from the public: it is accompanied by an original *poem*, addressed to the Shade of Dante, celebrating the 'father of the Tuscan song,' in strains not unmelodious; and describing, with characteristic variety, his 'downward path,' and gradual *ascent* to bliss.

' I see thy sable standard fur'd
O'er the dark Plutonian world:
I hear thee on the fatal verge
Sound afar thy dismal charge.' Vol. iii. p. 401.

' And many a tragic tale I hear,
Too horrible for mortal ear.' Vol. iii. p. 402.

' There the various plagues I view,
Shar'd among the Stygian crew.' Vol. iii. p. 402.

' Where the dragon of the deep,
With burning eyes that never sleep,
Watches when the tortures slake,
And calls the Furies from their *hike*.' Vol. iii. p. 402.

' Ere the corrective rites commence,
In dread vacuity they pine.
'Twixt mortal joys and bliss divine,
'Till fann'd by grace, the spirit wakes,
And its heav'n-ward tenour takes.' Vol. iii. p. 403.

' While prone, and humbled in the dust,
Those deplore their feeble trust,
And mourn their loss, involv'd in night;
Others, with redundant light,
Are punish'd as they go,
And view the figur'd show
Of virtuous deeds.' Vol. iii. p. 404.

' And feel the sting of inward shame,
Piercing deep their tortur'd frame.' Vol. iii. p. 405.

' Thus in successive toils they wind their way,
To the bright confines of eternal day.' Vol. iii. p. 406.

' With inexpressive raptures now they spy,
The wond'rous man, who broke the dreary mound,
And led their legions from the gorge profound
Of Hades, where in durance long they lay.'

Vol. iii. p. 408.

The *Inferno*, in this re-publication, scarcely differs from the translation of 1785. A summary view of this work, extracted from Warton's History of English Poetry, is omitted. Mr. Boyd has retained a treatise, comparing the *Inferno* with other poems founded on, or appealing to, the original principles of human nature; an historical essay on the state of Florence in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; a life of Dante, compiled from particulars collected by Bruni and Mr. Hayley; and a view of the Platonic doctrine relative to a future state, with the ideas of Scott (in his *Christian Life*) compared with those of Dante. That we may avoid unnecessary repetitions, we refer our readers to the critique in our fifty-ninth volume, for our opinions of Dante and of his translator.

From the first part of the Divina Commedia, we shall now select a concise, but interesting, passage, which we shall compare with the original; and, afterwards, offer to our readers, as a favourable specimen of the powers of Mr. Boyd, extracts from other parts of the volume.

On his approach, with Virgil, to the metropolis of the infernal world, Dante paints his situation:—

' Ma negli orecchi mi percosse un duolo,
Perch' i' avanti intento l'occhio sbarro :

E'l buon maestro disse: Omai, figliuolo,
 S'appressa la città, ch' ha nome Dite,
 Co' gravi *cittadin'*, col grande stuolo.
 Ed io: Maestro, già le sue *meschite*
 Là *entro certo nella valle* cerno
 Vermiglie, comè se di fuoco uscite
 Possero; ed ei mi disse: Il fuoco eterno,
 Ch' entro l'affuoca, le dimostra rosse,
 Come tu vedi in questo basso 'nferno.
 Noi pur guignemmo dentro all'*alte fosse*,
 Che *vallan quella terra sconsolata*:
 Le mura mi pareo, che ferro fosse.
 Non senza prima far grande aggirata,
 Venimmo in parte, dove 'l nocchier forte
 Uscite, ci gridò, *qui è l'entrata!*

INFERN. cant. viii. ed. Pasquali,

XII.

' But other clamours now, distinct and clear,
 With hubbub wild, assail'd my startled ear;
 " There *Hell's dire senate* sits in awful state:
 Her *dark divan* the lofty hall surrounds,
 Her *citadel* the baleful prospect bounds,
 And pours her millions forth at *every gate*."

XIII.

' Thus Maro spoke, and thus abrupt I said,
 " I see! I see! thro' night's disclosing shade,
 Hell's pyramids, that seem ascending fires!
 Why seem yon' tow'rs in crimson light to glow?"
 " The fiery floods," he cry'd, " that roll below,
 A baleful splendour cast on yonder spires."

XIV.

' Now smoothly steering down the deep canal,
 Trembling, we coasted round the lofty wall;
 High mounds of burning steel! that front the coast.
 Still our unweary'd oars the surges sweep:
 At length, exclaim'd the pilot of the deep,
 " Haste, haste on shore, and seize the fated post!"

Vol. i. p. 161.

The amplification in the *translated stanza XII.* is not consistent with the simple gravity of the original, which neither unfolds ' *hell's dire senate*,' nor ' *her dark divan*,' nor ' *her citadel*,' nor her ' *every gate*.' We dimly descry the city alone, its gloomy denizens (*cittadini*), and crowded population.

The thirteenth stanza compensates, by its spirit, for these interpolations. Pyramids and towers, with a happy daring, proudly supplant *le meschite*. For *entro nella valle*, how-

ever, 'Through night's disclosing shade' is a phrase too licentiously substituted.

In stanza XIV., we lose the descriptive and melancholy flow of the original measures:—

——— *alte fosse*
Che vullan quella terra sconsolata.

The sentence with which the extract concludes—*Seize the fated post!* is far more impressive in the unadorned simplicity of the original, to which the translation is by no means equivalent—*qui è l'entrata*—'Here is the entrance!'

Dante, unrivaled in awakening phantoms of horror and affright, is less impressive as his subjects become less dreadful. The *Purgatorio* and *Paradiso* offer interesting pictures, of diminished excellence. Had we never contemplated 'with shuddering, meek, submitted thought,' the awful visions, the tremendous scenery, of the *Inferno*, we should not, perhaps, have felt that veneration for the Tuscan poet which now forces us, among his other admirers, to censure the contemptuous judgement of Voltaire:—'*Le Dante pourra entrer dans les bibliothèques des curieux, mais il ne sera jamais lu.*' Compared with the *Æneid*, if the *Inferno* be 'a piece of grand Gothic architecture at the side of a beautiful Roman temple,' we must confess that this Gothic grandeur miserably degenerates in the adjoining edifices, which we proceed to examine.

The plan pursued by Dante, we have condemned in our former review. That he has mixed 'with ease and address theological and natural subjects,' may be occasionally admitted: but the pen of eulogy in the hands of Lorenzo de' Medici, could alone dare to record that 'he has united the simple and middle style with the sublime, and collected all the excellencies dispersed in the Greek and Roman writers.'

With every allowance, the *Commedia* must be acknowledged to contain a monstrous medley of subjects, and a confused assemblage of characters—pagan heroes and philosophers, Christian fathers, popes, kings, emperors, monks, ladies, apostles, saints, and hierarchies.

That we may be enabled to pass a longer period in the *Paradiso*, we shall neither attend our readers through the suburbs of *Purgatory*, repose with them at the different stages of the Mountain of Probation, linger in the *earthly* paradise (less enchanting than the garden of Armida), nor purify them in the rivers of Lethe or Eunoë. We shall dispense with a multitude of moral and religious lectures; abandon various vices personified by individuals of all ages and nations; and, leaving Virgil, shall soar with the spirit of Beatrice, the poet's first love, to her glorious empyreum.

We select, however, a few probationary passages.

The dulness of Dante is often enlivened by Mr. Boyd with profuse ornaments of his own, by which he is rather elevated than degraded.

' A path between the hill and valley ran,
By the majestic verge, that here began
With soft declivity to round away :
But, oh ! what mingled charms assail'd our sight,
Thro' the thin curtain of approaching night,
Matchless among the splendid births of day !

' The sunny glare of gold, the softer gleam
Of silver ; purple mix'd with scarlet's beam,
And the rich emerald's deep internal green ;
All fade before those amaranthine flowers,
Which here emparadis'd those blissful bowers,
That gaily smil'd these solemn hills between.

' Nor did the scene alone delight the view ;
But wafted on the breeze, that gently blew,
Greeting our sense, a flagrant (*fragrant*) odour came,
A nameless essence of abstracted joy ;
While, like sweet incense in an ev'ning sky,
Soft vesper songs the virgin's praise proclaim.' Vol. ii. p. 118.

The '*incognito indistinto*' of the author is ingeniously rendered—' a nameless essence of abstracted joy.'

The Italian lines—

*Nè si dimostra ma che per effetto,
Come per verdi fronde in pianta vita—*

are exchanged for an English stanza—

" Hence, Flora courts the smell, and breathes perfume !
We see the flowrets cloth'd in vernal bloom ;
But that fine spirit, which resides within,
That breathes Elysium, or invests the grove
With the green livery of delight and love,
To us, in its effects, is only seen." Vol. ii. p. 230.

As we are influenced by no motives of cynical severity, we must rely on the *kindness* of our '*sfacciate donne*,' to indulge our humour for salutary admonition.

" Sardinia's frontless matrons far excel
In modesty the maids of Arno's vale !—
O, brother ! shall I tell, or hide my thought ?
The horrible display that fancy views,
Which soon the pregnant moments will produce,
And impudence and pride's disgraceful lot.

" Soon a stern voice will teach the shameless kind
A decent covering, as they may, to find,

Their naked shoulders from the sun to hide!
 Was it amongst barbarians ever known,
 That nought but threats can bind the modest zone,
 On the young virgin and the plighted bride?

"But if these dainty dames could read the skies,
 And spy the slumb'ring tempest soon to rise,
 Those lips that whisper love, would shriek despair:
 If aught of future titties to me is known,
 The winged Fury comes in horror down,
 Before the infant's cheek is cloth'd with hair." Vol. ii. p. 282.

The delicacy of the translator discovers only 'naked shoulders':—the frontless dames of *Florence* are censured, by Dante, for a bolder display—

L'andar mostrando con le poppe il petto—

injudiciously adopted, *with improvements*, by English ladies, whom, with this gentle hint, we release from Purgatory, desirous of their company in our road to Paradise.

'Thro' utter and thro' middle darkness borne,' we ascend with the poet, under the guidance of Beatrice: and, as we proceed through the planets, we shall attempt to give our readers a rapid sketch of our route and adventures. According to the order of the Ptolemaic system, from the central earth we seek the moon (the first heaven). Here we begin to feel a slight degree of lunar influence.

'Soft smil'd the maid, for all my thoughts she knew.
 Soft as the rising moon, an orient light
 On her fine features shone serenely bright.

"Bless heav'n," she cry'd, "that on the lunar sphere
 Has landed you at last." While thus she spoke,
 It seem'd a shining cloud around us broke,
 And o'er the welkin roll'd in billows clear.

'From the broad surge reflex the solar ray
 Flash'd round, but far within the shafts of day;
 Th' ætherial lymph that form'd the subtle tide,
 With our dimensions mingling, as we pass'd,
 Our essence enter'd, and our limbs embrac'd,

As thro' the limpid wave we seem'd to glide.' Vol. iii. p. 42.

After this mystical union, various spirits are met, of those who had infringed monastic vows. Beatrice, who is perpetually moralising, discourses with the poet on free-will. We ascend to the planet *Mercury*, and converse with Justinian on the fall of Rome. Beatrice now discusses with the poet the doctrine of redemption, and the immortality of the soul.—We proceed to *Venus*, where the poet converses with Charles Martel, king of Hungary, and debates the question

—Why virtuous parents have degenerate children?—Predictions are heard of the fate of Italy. The order of the universe is contemplated and described.—We are next mysteriously wafted to the *Sun*. The poet talks here with St. Thomas Aquinas, who pronounces a panegyric on St. Francis, and gives various religious instruction.—We ascend to the planet *Mars*, where Dante meets one of his ancestors, hears an account of his family, the manners of Florence censured, and the banishment of the poet predicted, who is advised to write against the vices of the age.—In *Jupiter*, we next meet the administrators of justice upon earth. The blessings of revelation; and the question whether heathens can be saved, are treated at this interview. Virtuous kings are applauded.—The spirits of contemplatists are encountered in the planet *Saturn*. The poet converses with St. Benedict, and ascends to the eighth sphere, or starry heaven. Christ appears in triumph, surrounded by the blessed. Conferences occur with St. Peter on faith, with St. James on virtue, with St. John and with Adam.—We reach the ninth sphere, and listen to an harangue of St. Peter's, on wicked pastors. Thence we proceed to the empyreum, and behold the hierarchies. Beatrice, in beatific vision, observes and solves the doubts of Dante, and inveighs against clerical corruption. In the empyreal heaven, the triumph of angels and beatified spirits is contemplated. Here Beatrice remaining, sends St. Bernard to direct the poet in his progress. The orders of patriarchs, prophets, and evangelists, are described. At length, the poet is admitted to a nearer view of the beatific vision, and sees, emblematically, the second person of the Holy Trinity.

The principal subjects of the thirty-three cantos which form the *Paradiso*, we have lightly skimmed, that some judgment may be formed of this extravagant composition.

From a chaos of theological dissertations and historical narrative, we select specimens of *poetry*.

The following similes, which are rather characteristic of the adorned translation than of the simpler original, are pleasing:

‘ As the horizon glows beneath the dawn,
Or when the dews of eve refresh the lawn,
When on the skirts of heav’n the stars appear,
When twilight throws around a dubious gleam,
So a new squadron from the world’s extreme
Came on.’

Vol. iii. p. 185.

‘ As when Aurora’s blush adorns the East,
The plummy inmates of the callow nest

With flutt'ring wing their genial heat restore;
 Some from the pendent cradle soar away,
 Then sweep around their bed in wanton play,
 And venture onward, to return no more.' Vol. iii. p. 253.

We shall allow our readers a glance at the hierarchies, and close our extracts with the sublimest image of the beatific vision. The translator is as enthusiastic and mystical as Dante himself; but more sublime.

' The high-suspended choirs,
 Bright'ning like melted ore, in circling fires,
 With heav'nly glee, thro' all the sparkling maze,
 By twinkling legions ran, in number more
 Than human calculations could explore,
 Orb within orb, reflecting blaze on blaze.

' To heav'n's essential glory chim'd so loud
 The sweet Hosannah from the living cloud,
 In transport's 'whelming tide it plung'd my soul.
 Thus sung the hierarchies; and still they sing,
 And thus for ever spread the flaming wing,
 Incessant circling round the steadfast pole.' Vol. iii. p. 321.

' Tho' one itself, a changing aspect wore;
 More glorious far, and more intensely bright,
 The vision seem'd, as with a sharper sight
 I try'd the glorious prospect to explore.

' Three splendours seem'd their glories to unite,
 And then diverge amid th' abyss of light,
 Each catching in their turn the running blaze;
 As if three colours of the show'ry bow,
 With bright alternate hues, were seen to glow,
 For ever blending in a radiant maze.
 The central glory seem'd a rising fire,
 Darting on either side his flaming spire!' Vol. iii. p. 369.

In Italy, it has been long imagined that the antiquated style and general obscurity of Dante renders him unintelligible to foreigners, who, so far from reaching the *medulla*, vainly endeavour to penetrate the *bark* of his poem.

Although we reside *di là da i mari e da i monti*, we have found these difficulties superable. The *vecchie voci d'Italia* may be almost as readily comprehended by foreigners of classical erudition and general acquirements, as by the natives of Tuscany. The records of history are not inaccessible: and, for those private and local occurrences which are necessary to a complete familiarity with all the characters introduced, the modern student at Florence and in London has alike recourse to commentators.

To the *Purgatorio*, Mr. Boyd has prefixed a preliminary essay, principally founded on a conjecture that the representations of Dante were intended to be allegorical pictures of confirmed depravity, and to develope the moral discipline to which men are subjected in *this* life. The entire translation is accompanied with similar essays, notes, and illustrations, in which the researches of commentators, facts and arguments derived from history, metaphysics, theology, mysticism, and philosophy, combine to elucidate the moral and religious principles of the translator; sometimes they assist also the poetical reader, but more frequently, in *our* judgement, they are misplaced.

The censures which, in our former review, were excited by the disgraceful *rhymes* admitted by the translator, we regret, have been unavailing. For omissions and typographical errors—extremely numerous, and scarcely pardonable—we are desirous to admit, as an apology, distance from the press.

ART. II.—*Modern Geography.* By John Pinkerton. (Continued from p. 10. of our last Volume.)

WE return, with pleasure, to this very complete system of geography, which we left unwillingly, and which various circumstances have, till now, prevented us from resuming. We have enlarged sufficiently on our author's plan, and on those improvements which, we think, may still be made in future systems—for we do not despair of bringing works on this subject to a still greater degree of perfection. As geography has at length advanced beyond 'a mere muster-roll of names' that have little connexion with each other, or with any system of geology and natural history, we may be allowed to examine these volumes at a greater extent than usual, and to pursue, scientifically, what has now, for the first time, begun to assume the form of science. We believe no nation can boast of a system of geography equally complete, as nothing is omitted which the latest travelers and navigators could supply.

In every arrangement of the subject, the author's own country is allowed to possess the first place, both in the order and the proportion of attention bestowed. Even in the arrangement that we proposed, and which we consider to be preferable, as a geographical plan, to the present, which is chiefly political, this venial predilection might have been indulged.

From the late returns, the population of England, as we

suspected, and many years since endeavoured to show in opposition to Dr. Price, has been rated too low. From the statement before us, it appears that the population of England and Wales, usually estimated at scarcely more than eight millions, falls little short of nine millions and a half. Our principal source of population is, in Mr. Pinkerton's opinion, Belgic; for the various incursions of the Angli, the Jutes, and even the Saxons, were, in his estimation, too inconsiderable to produce much impression upon it. If this position admit of an exception, it may be sought, we think, in the western parts of the kingdom, where there are still striking traces of a Celtic language and Celtic manners.

Of the antiquities of this country, Mr. Pinkerton speaks with a judicious discrimination, and confirms what the author of this article has endeavoured repeatedly to inculcate in the Critical Review, that our reputed Druidical remains are by no means of that peculiar nature and appropriate appearance, which would show them to be of foreign derivation. The following passage is peculiarly judicious.

‘Cæsar speaks of Druidism as a recent institution; and such being the case, it is probable that it originated from the Phœnician factories, established in wooden fortresses on the coast, the usual practice of commercial nations, when trading with savage or barbarous races. The tenets correspond with what little exists of Phœnician mythology, and the missionaries of that refined people might be not a little zealous in their diffusion. However this be, the ancient authors, from whom we derive our sole authentic information concerning the Druids, minutely describe their religious rites, but are totally silent concerning any monuments of stone being used among them. On the contrary, they mention gloomy groves, and spreading oaks, as the only scenes of the Druidic ceremonies. Yet our antiquaries will even infer, that Stonehenge is a Druidic monument, though it be situated in an extensive plain, where not a vestige of wood appears, and where the very soil is reputed adverse to its vegetation.

‘It might, perhaps, be a vain effort of antiquarian investigation, to attempt to discriminate the remains of the earliest inhabitants from those of the Druidic period; indeed, if we set aside the authorities of modern antiquaries, commonly visionary and discordant, there is no foundation whatever for any sound or real knowledge of the subject. The following have been esteemed Druid monuments by Borlase: 1. Single stones erect: 2. Rock idols and pierced stones: 3. Rocking-stones used as ordeals: 4. Sepulchres of two, three, or more stones: 5. Circular temples, or rather circles of erect stones: 6. Barrows or tumuli: 7. Cromlechs, or heaps of stones: 8. Rock-basons, imagined to have been used in Druidic expiations: 9. Caves, used as places of retreat in time of war. But as most of those relics may also be found in Germany and Scandinavia, it becomes hazardous to pronounce whether they be Gothic or Celtic; and, as we learn from ancient authors that the Germans had no Druids, to bestow the name of Druidic upon such monuments, is the mere wantonness of conjecture. It is,

however, most probable, that the earliest inhabitants, as is ever the practice in the infancy of society, made use of wood, not stone, in their religious as well as in their domestic erections. If we survey the various savage regions of the globe, we shall seldom or never perceive the use of stone; and it is certainly just to infer, that the savages of the west, were not more skilful than those of the East; nor those of the old continents and islands, than those of the new. However this be, a learned ignorance upon such topics, is preferable to an assumed and imaginary knowledge.

‘But as many of these monuments are found in Germany, Scandinavia, and Iceland; and as the Icelandic writers in particular, often indicate their origin and use, which are unknown in the Celtic records, there is every reason to attribute them to a more advanced stage of society, when the Belgic colonies introduced agriculture, and a little further progress in the rude arts of barbarism.’ Vol. i. p. 27.

The illustrations of this opinion, in the singular remain of Stonehenge, with the account of the Saxon, Danish, and Norman antiquities, are too extensive to be enlarged on in this place.

The political geography is narrated with great candour and impartiality; and the chapter on civil geography contains a general description of the minuter objects of customs, manners, roads, inland navigation, &c. compacted with skill, and explained with precision. Indeed, little space is lost in useless detail; and the satisfactory account of the principal cities alone might fill a volume in the hands of a wordy author. The total amount of property, shipped and unshipped in the port of London, in one year, amounts to nearly sixty-seven millions.

The natural geography, though not a new branch in a geographical work, is yet new, if we consider its extent, its scientific form, and the mutual connexion of its different parts. The climate of England is, in our author's opinion, changed since 1775, and is now more moist and cold than before. The change occurred, we believe, a little earlier; and Mr. Herschel has endeavoured to explain the cause—we dare not say satisfactorily, or to our conviction. Such, however, may be the truth. The face of the country is explained from Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoölogy, which contains a description of the shores, from the Tweed to the straits of Dover. In a late work; he has proceeded somewhat further; but no author has given similar descriptions of the luxuriant coasts of Hampshire, the bleaker and more barren shores of Dorset, the verdant and variegated hills of Devon, the bolder marble rocks of Baticombe, extending to the embouchure of the Tamar. It is not, however, our business to supply lacunæ; and we trust, in another edition, the sketch will be more full and complete.

In the account of soil and agriculture, there are many circumstances of interest and curiosity. Among the latter, we may reckon the products of horticulture, in the neighbourhood of London, where an acre is supposed to yield 120*l.* annually.

The rivers next claim the author's attention—though we wish a description of the mountains had preceded, from which the different streams are derived.

In general it may be observed of the British rivers, that the length of their course is inconsiderable, when compared with that of the continental streams. The length of the Thames compared with that of the Danube, is only as 1 to 7, and with that of the Nile, as 1 to 18. The Kian Keu of China, and the river of Amazons in South America, extend through a progress of more than fifteen times the length of that of the Thames. The rivers of the southern and middle parts of England, present a striking contrast to those of the north; the former pursuing a slow and inert course over mud, between level banks, amid rich and extensive meadows; while the latter roll their clear torrents over beds of gravel, between elevated banks, and rocky precipices; and even when verdant levels occur, the stream still retains its banks and beds of gravel.

The mountains form another grand feature of geography. They seldom appear single, but are either disposed in lines or ridges, called chains, or in anomalous clusters. When they can be arranged under the first form or denomination, as the Alps for example, or the Pyrenees, they afford great clearness to geographical limits and descriptions. It is not, however, to be conceived, that a chain of mountains forms one series, as delineated in small maps, for the leading summits diverge on both sides into extensive ribs, gradually melting into the champaign country. And the clusters, if accurately surveyed, will generally be found to present central elevations, whence smaller branches irradiate.

While Bennevis, the highest mountain in Scotland, is not much above one quarter of the height of Mont Blanc, the sovereign of the Alps, the English and Welsh summits aspire to heights still less considerable; Snowden being only 3568 English feet above the sea, while Bennevis is 4387, or by other accounts, 4350. But Wharn, or Wharnside, in Yorkshire, was estimated at 4050.' Vol. i. p. 111.

The following account of the height of the British mountains is too curious to be overlooked.

In the map of the West Riding, in Cary's English Atlas, Wharn is said to be 1750 yards, or 5340 feet; while Ingleborough is 1760 yards, or 5280 feet; and Pennigant 1740 yards, or 5220 feet. This measurement is from the map of Yorkshire, by Jeffries.

Mr. Housman, in his Description of Cumberland, &c. (Carlisle 1800, 8vo.) is the most recent authority for the height of the British mountains, which he exhibits in the following table:

* Heights of the mountains above the level of the sea.

					<i>Feet.</i>
Snowden, in Wales, by Waddington,	-	-	-	-	3456
Whernside,	Do.	-	-	-	4050
Pendle hill,	Do.	-	-	-	3411
Pennygent,	Do.	-	-	-	3930
Ingleborough,	Do.	-	-	-	3987
Helwellyn, by Donald,	-	-	-	-	3324
Skiddaw,	Do.	-	-	-	3270
Cross-fell,	Do.	-	-	-	3390
Saddleback,	Do.	-	-	-	3048
Benlomond,	-	-	-	-	3240
Benevish,	-	-	-	-	4350
Ben-y-bourd higher,	}	By Pennant.			
Laghin-y-gair,					
Benwewish,		Perpetual snow.			
Skiddaw, by the experiments of Mr. Walker, from the plane	}				3530
of the sea, at Whitehaven,					
Cross-fell, by Pennant,	-	-	-	-	3839

* But great skill and precision are required in measuring the heights of mountains. A late excellent mathematician, Mr. Ewart, of Lancaster, measured the height of Ingleborough, with select and high-priced instruments, and great care. Here is the result, as communicated to me by Dr. Garnett:

* Height of Ingleborough above the level of the sea, in feet and decimals.

By barometrical admeasurement,	-	-	-	-	2377,12
By trigonometrical,	-	-	-	-	2380,79

Difference only - 3,67

* Wharn cannot be above 100 feet higher, while Pendle and Penrign are lower. The measurements by Donald are probably near the truth; Crossfell being, in Dr. Garnett's opinion, the highest mountain in England.

* Mr. Housman has, however, given a good general view of the English mountains. On coming from the south (p. 5.) they begin in Derbyshire, stretching a little into Cheshire. The tops of the ridges are commonly wet and boggy, and produce heath, bent-grass, and rushes. They are almost universally calcareous. Near Penrith (p. 8.) they almost wholly disappear. The summit of Crossfell (p. 18.) is scarcely 1000 yards above the sea, and presents a large heap of loose whitish free-stone, or, more probably, argillaceous grit. Vol. i. p. 111.

Of the nature of the mountains, we have a general account; and it would perhaps be unreasonable to expect a particular and discriminated statement. The region of granite is not accurately pointed out; and the mixture of schistas and granite—did a system like our author's admit of

so minute an inquiry—would afford some curious subjects of remark.

The botany of England is explained, in general, with sufficient precision, and to an extent, as well as with a degree of interest and accuracy, which, in so extensive a work, we confess we scarcely expected. The author considers plants as divided into natural classes, and enlarges only on the more scarce and curious*.

Of the zoölogy, the account is sufficiently perfect, if we except the class of fishes. The sting-ray and the torpedo are caught in Torbay. The conger-eel is sometimes found of an immense size; and the whiting, with some others, should not have been confounded with the rest, under the comprehensive addition of '*&c. &c. &c.*' The lobster is more common on the coast of Sussex than at Scarborough; and, had our author tasted the delicate flavour of the prawn, it would not have been omitted. The crawfish is specifically distinct from the lobster.

The manganese is copious in Devonshire, which now furnishes nearly the whole that the bleaching-grounds and the potteries require; and the marbles, in the neighbourhood of Torbay, vie with those of foreign countries in beauty of tint, and variety of veins.

The description of Scotland is peculiarly full and distinct. It is written with real warmth of heart. The statistical statements, published by sir John Sinclair, though unequal, and, in a few instances, unsatisfactory, have greatly assisted the author. After having accompanied various travelers in these regions, we have little to add to accounts thus brought together in a focus. The ancient history of Scotland we have already followed, under the guidance of our author. As we have noticed the mountains of England, let us offer, in addition, some of the most distinguished in Scotland.

The Grampian hills may be considered as a grand frontier chain, extending from Loch Lomond to Stonehaven, and forming the southern boundary of the Highlands, though four or five counties on the north-east of that chain, have, in their eastern and northern parts, the name and advantage of Lowlands. The transition to the Grampians is gradual, the first chain, according to general Roy, consisting of the Sadley-hills on the east, the Ochils in the middle, and Campsie-hills on the west. To the Grampian chain belongs Ben Lomond (3262); Ben Ledy (3009); Ben More (3903); Ben Lawres, the chief summit (4015); Shihallion (3564); Ben Verlich (3300); and other less important elevations on the east. Mount Battock in Kincardineshire, is 3465 feet. Ben Cruachan, in Argyleshire, is a solitary mountain, of 3300 feet above the sea.

* We may remark a singular error of the press:—The *jalep* of the shops is said to be the powdered root of a species of *argus* found in Turkey. This word may be more readily confounded with *jalah*, than with *salep*, the substance intended.

Ben Nevis is the highest mountain in Great Britain, being estimated at 4350 feet above the level of the sea, not much above a quarter of the height of Mont Blanc. This mountain has not hitherto been explored by any mineralogist. On the N. E. side it presents a precipice, nearly perpendicular, and of prodigious height, by some accounts 1500 feet. The view from the summit is grand, exhibiting most of the western Highlands, from the paps of Jura, to the hills of Cullen in Skey; on the east it extends to Ben Lawres, in Perthshire, and the river Ness; extent of view about eighty miles. The superior half of the mountain is almost destitute of vegetation. The summit is flat, with a gentle acclivity, and forms an easy pavement, probably of granite. Snow remains in the crevices throughout the year; but here are no glaciers, nor other magnificent Alpine features.

It would be difficult to divide the remaining mountains of the Highlands into distinct lines or groupes: they shall, therefore, be briefly mentioned in the order of proximity. To the N. W. of Ben Nevis is the long mountain of Corriarok, near Fort Augustus, over which a military road has been directed, in a zig-zag direction. From the foot of this mountain arises the rapid river Spey; and other streams run to the west, circumstances which indicate great elevation. About thirty miles to the east, rises the mountain Cairngorm (4060 feet), or the blue mountain, clothed with almost perpetual snow, and remarkable for quartz of different colours, chiefly the smoaky kind, well known to lapidaries. The other chief mountains in this region, are those of Braemar, or Scairsoch, at the source of the Dee; Ben Awn, and many of smaller height, such as Benibourd, Benachie, &c.

In the second division of the Highlands, which lies beyond Loch Linny and Loch Ness, the mountains are yet more numerous, but not so memorable. The western shore, in particular, is crowded with hills, from the island of Skey to cape Wrath, while a branch, spreading eastward towards Ord-head (1250 feet) forms, what are termed by seamen, the Paps of Caithness (1929 feet). The chief mountains on the west of Ross-shire, are Ben Chat, Ben Chasker, Ben Golich, on the south of Loch Broom; Ben Nore, on the north of that commodious haven; and the hills of Cuinak, on the south of Calva bay, or in the native language Kyllis-Cuin. More inland, are Ben Foskaig; and the chief mountain in this district, Ben Wevis (3720 feet). Vol. i. p. 183.

The account of the Scottish islands, including the Shetland isles, is peculiarly correct and discriminated.

Though Ireland be sufficiently known, its situation and connexions should not have been wholly overlooked. Our author thinks its population also chiefly Belgic, though lost in the Celtic colonies crowding from England and Wales. We suspect that the Belgæ never reached Ireland, and that its Gothic inhabitants came chiefly from Scandinavia. The Gaëlic was the prevailing language; and its customs, as well as its religion and manners, are chiefly Celtic.

France is the state next described; and the author's comprehensive and philosophical system is, in this section,

peculiarly conspicuous: his assistance, however, from the scientific authors of the neighbouring republic, has been very considerable.

‘ To attempt to describe the present government of France would be as vague as writing on the sands of a troubled ocean, as the whole may be radically changed in the short space that this sheet is at the press. At present the form more nearly approaches that of the Anglo-Americans, than any other, the first consul representing the president of the United States; while the senates, instead of being permanent, are summoned or dismissed at his will, and are ruled by a devoted majority. Equally futile would be the attempt to describe laws, where there is no code; and which fluctuate according to the despotism or clemency of the rulers.’ Vol. i. P. 253.

The population of France, before the revolution, is supposed to have amounted to twenty-six millions. By Dr. Price, who wished to raise the power and importance of the rival kingdom, it was increased to thirty millions: but we formerly showed, on examining the best data, with which Dr. Price was not acquainted, that it could not exceed twenty-two or twenty-three millions. Ancient France we should now place at not more than twenty millions; and the modern republic, even with its new acquisitions, must be under thirty millions. The reflexions on the political relations of this state are peculiarly valuable.

‘ The political importance and relations of France continue to be vast; nor was the prodigious power of this state ever so completely felt and acknowledged, as after a revolution and a war which threatened her very existence. When expected to fall an easy prey, she suddenly arose the aggressor, and has astonished Europe by the rapidity and extent of her victories. The rivalry of many centuries between France and England sunk into a petty dispute, when compared with this mighty contest, which will be felt and deplored by distant posterity. Yet by the protection of all-ruling Providence the British empire rose superior to the struggles, and remained free from those scenes of carnage and devastation, which attended the French progress into other countries: and the French navy being reduced to so insignificant a force, Great Britain has less to apprehend from France, than at any former period. Yet this invaluable advantage is somewhat diminished by the decided preponderance of French power on the continent; particularly in Holland, which formed the grand chain of our commercial intercourse. After all the continental powers have failed, it would be vain to suppose that any one of them, single and detached, can be really formidable to France. And though some thousands of miserable peasants may be at any time induced by foreign gold to form an insurrection in any country, and desperadoes as easily found to conduct them, yet there is little cause to suppose that France would be divided against itself; for the love and admiration of his country may be pronounced essential passions of a Frenchman, who despises a fo-

reigner while he is under the necessity of requesting his assistance. The distance of Russia, the second if not the first power on the continent, renders her favour or enmity of small importance to France; but between this last country and the Austrian power lasting jealousy and enmity have subsisted, since the reign of the emperor Charles V; and a collision of interests in Germany, Switzerland, and Italy have contributed to maintain this rivalry. The envied acquisition of Silesia, and other causes, have likewise excited a rooted hatred between Austria and Prussia, it is natural that the latter country should either conspire with France against the Austrian greatness, or connive at its fall. Yet to a calm and unprejudiced spectator it might appear the most sound policy for these three great powers to abandon inimical views, and to regard with a general eye of defence and jealousy the growing and already exorbitant power of Russia; which may in time consider them as provinces, and overflow Europe with another torrent of barbarism.' Vol. i. p. 255.

The rivers of France, as usual, precede the description of the mountains. These are, however, described with sufficient accuracy, from the best authors: yet, if we mistake not, an oryctological map, in one of the former volumes of the *Journal de Physique*, would have given greater accuracy and distinctness to the description. We shall select, as a specimen, an account of Mont Perdu, one of the highest pics of the Pyrenees, about eleven thousand feet above the level of the sea.

' The Pyrenean chain appears at a distance like a shaggy ridge, presenting the segment of a circle fronting France, and descending at each extremity till it disappears in the Ocean and Mediterranean. Thus at St. Jean de Luz only high hills appear, and in like manner on the east, beyond the summit Canigou, the elevations gradually diminish. The highest summits are crowned with perpetual snow. Blocks of granite are interspersed with vertical bands, argillaceous and calcareous, the latter primitive or secondary, and supplying the marbles of Campan and Antin, of beautiful red spotted with white, though the general mountain mass be grey. To the S. and W. the Pyrenees present nothing but dreadful sterility, but on the N. and E. the descent is more gradual, and affords frequent woods and pastures. Besides the dreadful fall of rocks, undermined by the waters, they are exposed to Lavanges, or the impetuous descent of vast masses of snow, called Avalanches in Switzerland, and have their glaciers and other terrific features of the Alps.

' According to Ramond the very summit of Mont Perdu abounds with marine spoils, and must have been covered by the sea; an observation confirmed by Lapeyrouse. This mountain is of very difficult access, as the calcareous rock often assumes the form of perpendicular walls, from 100 to 600 feet in height; and the snows, ice, and glaciers, increase the difficulty; nor did these naturalists attain the summit, though they could observe that the rock corresponded in form and nature with those which they ascended. A singular feature of the Pyrenees consists of what are called *boules*, or walls disposed in

a circular form. Near the summit of Mont Perdu is a considerable lake, more than 9000 feet above the level of the sea, which throws its waters to the east into the Spanish valley of Beoussa; and which the travellers consider as a proof that Mont Perdu really belongs to Spain, and that Tuccaroy forms the boundary. The best maps of the Pyrenees are erroneous, as this lake has no connection with the noted cascades of Marboré, which flow from another lake to the west; and Lapeyrouse has pointed out other gross mistakes in the topography of this interesting district. He adds that it is probable that the sole access to the summit of Mont Perdu will be found on the side of Spain, there being three summits called by the Spaniards *Las Tres Sorellas*, or the Three Sisters; the highest being to the north, and the lowest on the south, but separated, as would appear, by large glaciers. From this view of the Pyrenees, Lapeyrouse concludes that there exist chains of mountains, in which bands of granite, porphyry, trap, hornblende, and petrosilex, alternate vertically with primitive limestone, and are so intermingled as to prove a common origin. But in the Pyrenees these bands are surmounted by secondary limestone, replete with marine spoils, and containing even skeletons of animals, so that he concludes that the highest mountains of the chain must have yielded to the fury of the ocean, and that the secondary parts alone now exist. Mr. Townsend observes, that the limestone and schistus feed the vegetation on the N. of the Pyrenees, while the south is barren and consists of granite; while, in fact, mountains are generally barren and precipitous on the S. and W. because the most violent rains and tempests come from those regions.' Vol. i. p. 275.

• If France be divided by imaginary lines from E. to W. into nearly four equal parts, the most northern of these divisions will bear a considerable resemblance in its climate and vegetable produce to the S. of England; the second differs principally from the first in exhibiting here and there a few vineyards; in the third, fields of maize begin to make their appearance; and the fourth is distinguished from the preceding by intermixing groves of olive trees with its exuberant harvests, and its overflowing vintages.' Vol. i. p. 277.

The botany of this kingdom is not detailed to so great an extent as that of England; and the zoölogy furnishes no subject of particular observation. In mineralogy, the French naturalists magnify their treasures beyond the truth; and their accounts must be received with some limitation. Mr. Pinkerton seems to have trusted them too implicitly.

The description of the Netherlands is short, and affords little subject for remark. While the rival of Holland, this country will not emerge into importance: under the protection of England, it might become opulent and powerful. But the protection of England would avail little against the continental power of France.

One of the great inconveniences of a strict adherence to arrangement, whether political or geographical, is the separation of parts of kingdoms, by nature and every other

circumstance closely united. Thus the empire of Russia, in Europe, is separated from that in Asia, though merely the Uralian Chain, and even a more ideal boundary towards the south, is the only barrier of a people scarcely differing in origin, in manners, or government. While Mr. Pinkerton has properly extended the confines of geography, he has omitted some of its more essential parts; and one very important omission is the extent and limits of countries on each side of those described, as well as their natural connexions with those most nearly allied to them. By the partition of Poland, he tells us that Russia, in Europe, extends from the Dniester to the Uralian Chain. But the southern boundaries—*viz.* the Black Sea and the sea of Azof; the north-eastern, which, speaking generally, are the gulf of Finland, and the chain of lakes communicating with the White Sea, as well as Prussia on its west—deserve also particular notice. The extent described is the largest diameter from the south-west to the north-east.

The omission we complain of is not exclusively confined to the kingdom before us. The Russians are of a Slavonian race—the descendents of the Sarmatæ—distinguished from the Goths and the Tartars, though occasionally mixed with the latter, resembling them in person, and not unfrequently in manners. Dr. Guthrie has shown that the mythology of pagan Russia was not very different from that of Greece; and, from the Grecian establishments on the north of the Euxine or Black Sea, the coincidence may easily be explained. It is the interest of Prussia and Austria, in our author's opinion, to direct the arms of Russia to the east. The Grecian islands would willingly accede to her dominion; and perhaps the Porte might readily resign these, if her other possessions, in this moment of her decline, were guaranteed.

The civil geography of Russia is explained very satisfactorily, under the guidance of Mr. Tooke and the best authors. The inhabitants are of various kinds; and the Laplander, the mildest of the human race, is also the weakest and the least attractive. Of European Russia, the sea seems once to have covered a considerable part. The White Sea formerly approached the celebrated Permian, though now seven hundred miles distant; and the dry arid plains to the north of the sea of Azof, as well as those interposed between the last sea and the Caspian, show very clearly an alluvial origin at no very distant period. In the south and south-eastern parts of European Russia, the soil is rich even to an injurious luxuriance; and, did Russia know her own interests, her capital should be in the neighbourhood of the Don and the Wolga. In the centre, however, of this kingdom, there

is some elevated ground, with traces of granite, which at least prove that the whole is not of secondary formation. The chief mountains are those of Olonetz on the north-west, and the vast Uralian Chain on the east.

The botany of Russia is indebted, for the scanty knowledge we have obtained of it, to German naturalists; and, in zoölogy, we find little novelty. The mineralogy of Russia is better known; but we cannot enlarge on it. In the description of Spitzbergen, one of the Russian islands, we see how low the powers of nature may be depressed by the coldness of the climate: its rigors are equaled only by what is described in captain Cook's second voyage in the higher latitudes of the antarctic regions—the Island of Desolation.

The Austrian dominions are composed of the kingdom of Hungary and Bohemia, the arch-duchy of Austria, and the grand duchy of Transylvania. By the Venetian territory and Dalmatia, it is, perhaps, amply compensated for the loss of the Netherlands—a distant appendage, and, to the house of Austria, of no very considerable value. The title of emperor is chiefly ornamental; and gives, at this time, only a precarious and uncertain power, which it is not easy to assert, since, if resisted, compulsion is impossible. The power of the emperor over Saxony is now, for instance, as little as over England; for the bans of the empire, like the anathemas of the pope, have lost their terror. The emperor, however, claims the honour of being the successor of the Cæsars, and with justice; since almost all his dominions were once subject to the Roman power.

The 'civil geography' of these territories is very satisfactorily detailed; and the 'natural' has considerable claims to our regard. A short account of the face of the country may be a specimen of our author's talents in topographical description.

The appearance of the various regions subject to Austria is rather mountainous than level, presenting a striking contrast in this respect to those of Russia and Prussia. Commencing at Bregentz on the lake of Constance, we find chains of mountains, and the Rhetian Alps, and glaciers of Tyrol, branching out on the S. and N. of Carinthia and Carniola. Another chain pervades Dalmatia, and on ascending towards the N. Stiria displays chains of considerable elevation. The southern limit of Austria Proper is marked by other heights; and Bohemia and Moravia are almost encircled by various mountains, which on the E. join the vast Carpathian Chain, which winds along the N. and E. of Hungary and Transylvania, divided from each other by another elevated ridge: the dismembered provinces of Poland, though they partake in the S. of the Carpathian heights, must yet afford the widest plains to be found within the limits of Austrian power.

This ample extent of country is also diversified by many noble rivers, particularly the majestic Danube, and its tributary stream the

Tisza, which flows through the centre of Hungary; and scarcely is there a district which is not duly irrigated. The general face of the Austrian dominions may therefore be pronounced to be highly variegated and interesting; and the vegetable products of both the N. and S. of Europe unite to please the eye of the traveller.' Vol. i. p. 358.

The particular mountains are very carefully described: but we may remark that the Euganean hills are most probably not volcanic. Indeed, on the subject of volcanoes, we continue to grow still more skeptical:

' We pull in resolution, and distrust
Th' equivocation
That palter with us in a double sense.'

The Flora of Hungary is imperfect, though we are acquainted with that of Austria, from the labours of Jacquin, and of Carniola from Scopoli. What we *have* learned is, as usual, advantageously detailed. The zoölogy offers some new animals; and the mineralogy is peculiarly rich. So far as they have been ascertained, the minerals are singular and valuable. The mercurial mines of Idria have been long since described; and the salt-mines of anterior Poland are sufficiently known: since they have been in the possession of Austria, their value is said to have declined. What relates to the natural curiosities, we shall transcribe.

' Among the natural curiosities may be named the grand Alpine scenes of Tyrol, the glaciers and peaks of the Brenner. At Gannowitz in Stiria is a fountain whose waters are said to be warm in winter and cold in summer: a common error, the deception consisting in their preserving the same temperature. The calcareous hills of Carinthia afford many singular scenes; which are however exceeded by those of the Carnian Alps, or Birnbaumer mountains, of Carniola. In the latter country, near Adlsberg, is said to be a grotto of prodigious extent, displaying spaces sufficient for the erection of villages, and containing natural amphitheatres, bridges, &c. Near the entrance, the river Poig, which rises at about a mile distant, throws itself into the hollow of the rock, and passes under the grotto, which was perhaps the ancient course of the river. The grotto of St. Mary Magdalen, in the same district, is remarkable for beautiful pillars; and that of Lueg for extent and the variety of stalactitic figures. Nor is that near St. Serf unworthy of notice. But the chief natural curiosity of Carniola is the lake of Cirknitz, called by Dr. Brown the Zirchnitzer See. That traveller informs us that it is about two German, or more than eight English miles in length, by four of the latter in breadth. In the month of June the water descends under ground, through many apertures at the bottom; and in September it reascends with considerable force; thus yielding rich pasturage in summer, while in winter it abounds with fish. The calcareous hills and islands of Dalmatia contain similar curiosities; as the lake Jesero in the isle of Cherso, which only diffuses its waters every fifth year; several curious caverns; and prodigious quantities of fossil bones, of horses, oxen, sheep, &c. but

doubtful if any be human ; nor have any decidedly such been discovered in any region of the globe. Austria, Bohemia, and Moravia, display few natural curiosities ; but those of Hungary are numerous, besides the Alpine scenes of the Carpathian mountains. There is a cavern of prodigious extent near Szadello, about thirty British miles N. W. of Kashau. It is, like all the other large caverns, in a hill of limestone ; and is so crowded with large pendent stalactites as to become a dangerous labyrinth. Near Szalitze, in the same quarter, is another renowned cavern, which, like that mentioned in the account of France, contains a small glacier. At Demanovo, about sixteen British miles to the E. of Rosenberg, is another remarkable cave, containing many bones of wild animals which have taken shelter there, as not unusual in the caves of Germany.' Vol. i. p. 377.

Of Prussia, the population is mixed. The Estii and Peucini were originally Gothic tribes ; but the Slavons pressed on them, and form now one half of the numbers. The geography of Prussia must be progressive, since the kingdom is established by successive acquisitions. The political relations of Prussia, as represented in the volume before us, we do not exactly comprehend ; or at least our opinion differs on the subject.

' What Poland would have been, if blessed with a happier government, and executive energy, may be conceived from the present appearance of Prussia, exclusive only of one circumstance, that of contiguity with the Ottoman dominions. An alliance with Prussia would be indeed of supreme importance to the Turkish empire ; nor can it be the interest of Prussia to permit Russia to extend her aggrandisements. Yet the Porte has few advantages to offer, while Russia might secure the alliance of Prussia, by conceding a further part of Poland to balance any great accession of Turkish territory.

' In regard to the other chief powers of Europe, England, France, Russia, and Austria, an alliance of the first with Prussia has repeatedly been enforced by circumstances ; but it cannot be disguised that there is a more necessary and important connexion between Prussia and France, as both have cause to be jealous of the Austrian power, which France can essentially injure, while England is by nature debarred from any preponderating interference. But a chief province of Prussian politics must be the defence of the country against the arms and influence of Russia, for which purpose a most important step would be a firm alliance, cemented by every political tie and interest, between Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden ; which, if the Russian empire remain undivided, will be the sole barrier of continental independence.' Vol. i. p. 388.

This, it is evident, is the opinion of the Prussian government ; and perhaps they are aware of the importance annexed to Hanover, which can alone influence a conclusion to us so singular. We own that we think the natural allies of Prussia to be Russia and England ; and the arguments of Horace Walpole are recent in our ears and our remembrance. But

it is impossible to fathom the cabinets of princes. Prussia, in the past contest, should, we think, have taken a different part: her late steps will, we fear, be little less fatal to her in the end, than his assistance of the Americans was to Lewis. —The population of Prussia is said to exceed eight millions: its forests are numerous, its mountains few; and its natural history affords little subject of remark: its amber was formerly a source of riches and of fame; but fashion, which decides on the value of trifles, has lowered its estimation.

Spain, it is said, was the Tarshish of the Phœnicians and Hebrews: this, however, has always appeared to us doubtful. There was anciently a Tartessus in the Straits; and its remains have been lately discovered by an able and intelligent naval officer in the Bay of Algeiras: but this seems not to have been the Tarshish of the Jews. Ophir, for instance, was certainly in the Red Sea, or in the Indian Ocean: but the ships of Tarshish went *with* the fleets of Solomon to Ophir; and those of Jehosophat were built at Ezion Geber, or, at least, wrecked there (2 Chron. xx. 36.). The east wind is said, by Ezekiel, to be fatal to the ships of Tarshish, which, in the Bay of Algeiras, would be harmless. The Celts of Spain were expelled by the Goths, but chiefly by the Africans and Phœnicians; and the antiquities are generally Moorish. The natural history of Spain has been satisfactorily explained by count Dillon, who combined observation and philosophy with his chief object—commercial connexions; and, more lately, by Mr. Townshend. The whole is admirably compacted, and detailed with great precision. Spain *was* the Mexico of antiquity, and might still be accounted rich—richer than even South America, were its inhabitants industrious.

Turkey, in Europe, contains the whole of Greece and the Grecian islands, peopled, in their early period, by the ancient Scythians: but the real or supposed Egyptian colonists—from whom the Grecians, whose language we admire, and whose works we regard with an almost idolatrous veneration, are supposed to have derived their arts and mythology—should have been noticed in the progressive geography. As provinces of the Turkish empire, this country merits little regard: but the Greeks retain, we have been told, their spirit and ability, their ingenuity, their address, and their language—so that they may again revive. It is said, in the report of the *candid* and *honourable* Sebastiani, that the Greeks are ready to receive the French yoke. They *may* be ready to shake off their own; but Bonaparte will never be a second Alexander.

The description of the mountains is peculiarly discrimi-

nated; and the opposite representations of Ptolemy and D'Anville reconciled with sufficient exactness. The botany and mineralogy of these provinces is truly 'a barren field;' and the natural curiosities, now known, are few—indeed those only which are described by the ancient authors.

Of Holland, little can be said that has even the semblance of novelty. Denmark and Norway have been the frequent subjects of our inquiry. These two last kingdoms constituted the ancient Scandinavia, first conquered by the Goths, and still retained by that race with little mixture.

'The geography of Norway, as may be expected, is more obscure; nor is there reason to believe that any part, except its most southern extremity, had been seen by the Roman mariners. It seems therefore a vain conception, merely arising from similarity of names, to suppose that the Nerigon of Pliny is Norway; and to add to the absurdity that the city of Bergen, which was only built about the year 1070, is the Bergos of that author! The passage belongs to his description of Britain: and it would be more rational to enquire for these isles, (for he especially mentions Bergos as a separate isle), among the Orkneys; or perhaps off the coast of Jutland, where it is well-known that isles have been lessened and devoured by the fury of the western waves. In his attempt to illustrate this subject, D'Anville has sunk into the grossest absurdities; and his arguments are not only puerile, but he even corrupts the text of Pliny. Suffice it to observe that he extends beyond all rational bounds the ancient knowledge of Northern Europe; and supposes that the promontory of Rubeas is the furthest extremity of Danish Lapland, instead of a cape in the N. of Germany stretching into the Baltic! It is painful to observe so able a geographer following in this instance the dreams of Cluverius and Cellarius, while he justly restricts the ancient knowledge of Asia and Africa.' Vol. i. p. 489.

The account of the Laplanders is curious: but we mean to follow this subject particularly, in the concluding article of Acerbi's Travels, from the author who has furnished Mr. Pinkerton's outline. The description of the mountains is interesting; and the mistakes of some able writers are in part corrected. The natural history contains nothing particularly new. Sweden furnishes little novelty. Our author's chief information is collected from Linnæus, Bergmann, and Coxe: some circumstances of importance might have been drawn from the observations of Acerbi—who, however, lies under the suspicion of occasional errors, either from misinformation or the mistakes of his interpreter—had such observations been published earlier, Acerbi's travels were, however, communicated subsequently to the present volumes.

Portugal and Switzerland need not detain us: the former we shall soon consider under the auspices of a more modern

travellers; and to Mr. Coxe's very elaborate account of Switzerland nothing important is added*. In De la Saussure's philosophical descriptions of the Alpine regions, future observers will find it difficult to make any improvement.

The German states, and the remainder of the work, must be the subject of a future article.

ART. III.—*The Trident.* (Continued from p. 145 of the present Volume.)

WE now, with *Neptune* and his three sons, *Albion*, *Erin*, and *Caledon*, proceed on a visit to *Vulcan*. Neptune requests, for his sons, suits of shields, swords, and spears. Ample details are given relating to this armour. For the ideas, our architect is principally indebted to the ancient poets.

'Vulcan having thus, with the aid of his three gigantic sea-born assistants, the thundering Brontes, Steropes and Pyracmon, sons of Neptune and Amphitrite, formed the three spears, explained the reason: "Your sons, Albion, Erin and Caledon," says he to Neptune, "will for many ages be at enmity with each other; but at length will unite. When that period shall arrive, I foresee that, grown weary of dominion, you will desire to resign your government of the sea. Meanwhile these three spears, the property of your three sons, when firmly hooped together at my eternal anvil, will become one sceptre—a sceptre worthy of Ocean's lord." P. 57.

The bas-reliefs on the grand entablature of the north front of the Temple of Fame collect men of all ages, nations, and professions.

'Euclid, Thales, Anaxagoras, &c. &c.—Hanno, Himilco, &c.—Anaximander, Eudoxus, &c.—Hipparchus, Pytheas, &c. &c.—Varro, Pliny, &c. &c.—Almamon, Abulfeda, &c.—Columbus, Gama, Magelhaens and Cook—Belus, Atlas, &c.—Ptolemy, Alphonsus, Purcharius, &c.—Davis, Hadley, &c.—Mercator, Wright, Gunter, &c.—Newton.' P. 59.

We hasten to the temple itself. The basement is a square, the central part a hexagon, the top a circle.

For the change from a square to a circle, the architect apologises. No apology is necessary. Examples exist in ancient monuments—the mausoleum of the Scipios in the *via Appia*, and others. Had this been his only deviation from

* The later events, which have overturned the constitution of that once happy country, we shall soon notice, in reviewing the fourth edition of Mr. Coxe's Travels.

established rules, the designs of our author would have been more accordant with *our* ideas of pure taste.

At the first celebration of the naval games, prizes are proclaimed for

‘historians, poets, painters, &c. ; and that the reward of each victor shall be an immediate medallion on the exterior of the Temple of Fame ; and, after death, a tomb at its foundation ; the high-placed medallion to excite admiration of genius ; the lowly and solemn tomb, to mingle with that sentiment the tenderness of regret for departed excellence.’ P. 67.

The title of the ninth chapter will entertain our readers.

‘Interior of the Temple of Fame—Sepulchral urns—Military funeral—Visits to the monument of a slain officer—The wounded in battle attended by the surgeons—Heroism of captain Speke and his son—Hosier’s ghost—Fly-boat of victory—Pinnacle of discovery—Nautic friezes—Dance of the Winds—Aurora Borealis—Honours proposed to artists—Pericles.’ P. 71.

The fly-boat of victory, and pinnacle of discovery, exhibit inventive powers, which tempt us to give a lengthened extract.

‘The fly-boat of victory is flying along with the wind on her quarter, as most favourable to expedition : she has only two sails ; the mainsail displays a winged Victory, the topsail, a flying Fame ; on the prow stands Dispatch, with mercurial wings to his cap and heels, and at his shoulders the plumes of Iris messenger of Jove. Like a Mercury, he stands on tip-toe and on one foot ; over his head he holds up the letter of a victorious commander to the state, called a dispatch ; and at his lips is held a post-horn, with which he announces his approach. The fly-boat carries an ample ensign with a swallow tail playing in the wind, the swallow being an emblem of swiftness ; and on the ensign is seen a horse on full speed, the insignia of our English packets ; the long pendant at the mast-head indicates the intelligence to appertain to naval war, as that pendant may not be worn by mercantile vessels.

‘Besides a fine gale to urge the boat on, it is also drawn by flying fish, out-flying the wind itself ; and a mermaid sits on the stern, with the ensign staff in her hands, steering the fly-boat with her finny tails.

‘In the air, and somewhat astern, two or three albatrosses, which, from their nature, their habits, and their vast extent of wing, may aptly enough be denominated the birds of Neptune, are seen in their swiftest flight.

‘The jovial crew is composed of Cupids, for none trim the sail so well as the impatient “Williams” flying to the arms of their “black-eyed Susans.” To every brace there is a Cupid, humouring the sails to the wind, that not a breath of it may be lost. One is perched on the binnacle, holding up the whirling-reel ; through the hands of another flies the log-line ; and a third turns the glass, and watches the fast

running sand. A jolly group before the mast are dancing to the haut-boy, and between the mast and binnacle a careful Cupid is sitting at the kettle, cooking the beef and pudding; and by him stands another with a keg of grog under his arm.

On the opposite side is represented the pinnacle of discovery, with two lug-sails, a fore-sail, and a mizen; the wind close hauled; in the fore-sail sits Vigilance, stroking with one hand the head of a cock, and in the other hand she holds a telescope at her side, but all the while looking right a-head; on the gunwale, in a steady attitude, stands Prudence, with one hand on an anchor, and in the other the lead and line: Perseverance at the binnacle directs the course, and Fortitude governs the helm. On the mizen is painted a sea diver, an indication that land is not far distant.

Harnessed to the pinnacle are seen two dolphins, but their heads are directed to starboard and to larboard, as if rather intent on looking out for the dangers that are to be shunned, than on proceeding with extraordinary dispatch. The ensign is of moderate size, and bears the image of Hope. A second anchor is seen at the stern.

The crew, as before, are children, but without wings: before the mast, in allusion to the toils and hazards they have to encounter, they are practising as boxers and wrestlers; one is perched on the yard to look out: at the mast-head is only a short vane; at every brace and halyard, tack and sheet, one of the crew stands watch, but all these ropes are belayed; and in allusion again to the necessity of precaution against enemies, or savage men, the captain who stands near the helm wears a sword; and on each bow is likewise an armed sentinel. One of the officers is taking an observation with Hadley's quadrant. Here again one of the crew has mounted the binnacle, with the reel in readiness for heaving the log, which is in the hand of one preparing to heave it, and another has likewise the sand-glass in readiness: a cook also is at work.' P. 75.

We are now led to a race-course around the HIERONAUTICON. In front stands the *Neptunium*, 'the barrier and goal of the foot-races,' where the judges of the games have their elevated seats. Cylindrical pedestals, the *metæ* of the course, are decorated with statues, 'handling some implement of the marine profession;—a 'stokesman, pikeman, bowman, captain of the boarders,' &c.

The attitude and character of the captain are engaging.

Upon the last meta is seen the captain of the boarders. He is supposed to have made his way good, till he has got on the enemy's deck. His countenance bespeaks an energy that surmounts all obstacles, together with a confidence of success. With a boarding pistol held defensively for warding off a stroke aimed at his neck, he is in the attitude of a fencer lunging at his adversary with his cutlass. The pistol has a basket hilt, like a sword; is double barrellled; and by the position of both tumblers, &c. both barrels appear to have been already discharged.

On his head he wears a Dutch cap; has on two jackets, both buttoned, except at the bosom; long trowsers, stockings and shoes; collar close, and neckcloth tied.' P. 80.

After a description of the *stadium*, the *metas*, and the field itself of the *gymnasium*, we are admitted into the Neptunium, where we have no leisure to linger.

‘ *Abera foro, palæstrâ, stadio, et gymnasiis ?*’
perhaps some antiquarian-mariner exclaims. We must soothe him by very concise passages.

‘ Towards the stadium the centre shield bears the impress of the balance of Justice ; the side shields bearing each a rod, tipped with the palm of an antique rudder, and entwined with a branch of alder ; which is a native aquatic, and the wood that yields the best charcoal for gunpowder. It is therefore proposed that a sprig of this tree shall be made, in the naval games of Britain, what a sprig of the native olive of Olympia was in the games there celebrated.’ P. 85.

Dolphins ‘ with curling noses,’ winged tridents, and winged lyres, ornament pedestals in the Neptunium, on which also poetic inscriptions are engraved : from these, the speech of Neptune may supply a few verses.

‘ My fav’rite Albion ! image of thy sire !
Thee, worthiest of my sons, mine heir I greet !
To thee, the car, the steeds, the reins be giv’n,
The pond’rous mace tripointed, and the throne
Of Ocean’s lord ! The toil of sway be thine :
Mine, sweet repose, on this my most-lov’d shore ;
Joying, to see renew’d myself in thee !’ P. 87.

The architect now becomes historian, and compiles ‘ Neptune’s history, his affection for Britain and for horses.’

Albion’s history follows. The subject of naval *flags* is discussed ; and, instead of the *union-flag*, is proposed the device of ‘ *the trident at the main*.’

On another side of the pedestal, the naval ode of ‘ Rule, Britannia !’ affords subjects for sculpture, on which the author enlarges in his accustomed desultory manner.

The stanzas of Thomson have, since the publication of the Trident, been communicated to us, *considerably altered, with a view to improvement*. Before we observe on these alterations, we shall give the original opening of the ode, and the rhapsody which introduces the bas-reliefs.

‘ Britain rises from the main—Neptune presents a sceptre to Britannia—Her guardian angels sing her destiny—Origin of English horses.’ P. 99.

‘ When Britain first, at Heaven’s command,
Arose from out the azure main,
This was the charter of the land,
And guardian angels sung this strain ;
“ Rule, Britannia ! rule the waves,
Britons never will be slaves.”

' O, Michael Angelo, for thy daring pencil, to paint this disruption of the mighty deep! this up-springing of Albion's mountain-crowned isle from the low vallies of the ocean? Heaven's high command Jove's thunder speaks, and trident-bearing Neptune gives the dread stroke, at which earth to her foundations quakes. The labouring Atlantic writhes and roars with pain: her quick-heaving liquid bosom is now up-swollen as Atlas high, and now again as low it sinks; and her watery tresses, in wild disorder, fly before the storm. Instant the storm subsides, but not the billowy labour. Profound the succeeding calm; awful the death-resembling silence; awful alike, the portentous gloom around; and terrible to behold, an ocean without wind in labouring commotion. Ere long, propitious Luna from high heaven stoops, to aid the mighty birth; when the imprisoned isle rushes, with volcanic explosion, to liberty and light, tossing many a league in air the last opposing waves!' p. 99.

The verse is now altered by the architect.

' When, from old Ocean's dread profound,
Up rose our isle, at Heaven's command,
The Triton band, with trampet's sound,
Proclaim'd this charter of her land:
Rule, Britannia! rule the waves,
Britons never will be slaves.'

We prefer the original; yet the alterations are not ridiculous. The line, in a subsequent stanza,

' As warring winds that shake the skies,'

is less poetical and spirited than Thomson's—

' As the loud blast that rends the skies.'

But we must hurry on to the *HIERONAUTICON* itself, which at length we descry—a colossal column, placed on a pedestal supported by a double socle (two plinths). The first socle, with its eight towers, forms a square of 516 feet; and, including the beaks of ships, which project from the towers at the angles, 565 feet. From the ground, to the floor of the terrace formed by the top of this socle, the height is 76 feet, and, with the balustrade, 80 feet.

' The pedestal of the great column, passing down through the centre of this socle to the earth, where it is made wider than above, occupies at bottom a square of 80 feet; which substance it carries up to the floor of the rooms in the upper socle, or about 77 feet from the ground; where it diminishes to a square of 70 feet, which is its dimension when it becomes visible above the upper terrace. From the earth upwards, to the height of 20 feet, including the substance of the arching and flooring above, the rest of this socle, except the spaces occupied by the towers, is wholly formed into arched vaults, intersecting each other at right angles, and receiving light only at their extremities; designed for the solemn depositories of those who die in

battle, or who otherwise distinguish themselves for any services to their country, that come within the scope of that design which gave birth to the Hieronauticon.' P. 117.

Above, are offices for the grand apartments.

' Confining ourselves for the present to the terrace of the lower socle, its width on every part is somewhat more than the width of the street at Whitehall, in front of the gate of the Admiralty, being 104 feet within the balustrade; and the length of every side, or parade, is 462 feet. These parades, it must be remembered, are 76 feet from the ground.' P. 119.

The upper socle contains rooms of state of a vast size; some, as the hall of Alfred, 242 feet in length, 86 feet in width, and 53 feet in height.

' What the terrace formed by the roofs of these apartments, compared with the other terrace, loses in length, it gains in height; and its width, in all parts, is still of no scanty dimension; for its promenades, east, west, north and south of the great pedestal, are still wider than Oxford-street at the Pantheon; being 87 feet wide, and 247 feet long. An Oxford-street, lifted 133 feet into the air, may be thought a quarter-deck not altogether unworthy of those great men who have raised, to the highest pitch, the renown of their country.' P. 120.

The towers also contain banner-rooms, trophy-rooms, &c. &c.

The pedestal itself is 55 feet high; its width, at the base, is 70 feet; the clear die is 54 feet wide, and 29 feet high.

' The column has a diameter at its base of 36 feet, and an altitude to the top of the abacus of 306 feet. It diminishes to a diameter, at the neck, of 32 feet.' P. 120.

' The crowning above consists of a statue on a pedestal; each angle of which is adorned with a Triton bestriding a rearing sea-horse, and blowing a conch. The figure has a sword in his left hand, he rests his left arm on a tripod, in which is planted erect the British trident; and, with his right hand elevated, he points to the head of that trident. The height of the pedestal is 35 feet, and that of the statue, to the crown of his head, fifty-two feet six inches, but to the extremity of the elevated hand 60 feet. Above this the trident rears its head 18½ feet; its point then being from the ground 600 feet.' P. 121.

The author now compares his monument with the wonders of the world, the great pyramid of Egypt, wall of Babylon, Colossus of Rhodes, Pharos of Alexandria, and Monument of London; and subjects himself to criticism for many remarks, particularly on Trajan's column.

We observed, in the seventeenth chapter, a passage which we approve, as on a level with our understandings.

‘ Now, although, as a matter of sentiment and of taste, the author has shewn a partiality to the emblem of defence and security, and, as an ornament to the Hieronauticon, has hanged it upon the walls round about ; he cannot go so far as to say, that, as having an unavoidable allusion to war, he should esteem it a well-chosen ornament of a Christian church ; much less can he approve, for that purpose, of flags taken from an enemy in battle, or think that, on any reason he has yet heard in favour of that custom, it is one that would not be more honoured in the breach than the observance. In the trophy-rooms of the Hieronauticon, opening to the great halls, he hopes he has furnished more suitable places for such spoils of war.’ P. 144.

The eulogy of an admirable living artist, we extract :

‘ Such, O Nollekens, we know is the form which thou canst give: but thou must do more. With Phidian inspiration and Promethean fire, to inanimate matter thou must give a soul ; and place upon our column an image of our nation’s genius, that shall live, and look, and speak, like thine own Venus, in all the eloquence of divine sculpture !’ P. 152.

We cannot rest on the floors of the terraces, fancifully inlaid with bronze ; nor on the materials or mode recommended for expediting the work.

The situation preferred is *Portland*, for the advantage of its elevation and surrounding sea, forming that magnificent *Naumachia*, in which whole *fleets* of line-of-battle ships may manœuvre. The difficulties of the *race* and *shambles* only afford greater scope for good pilotage and naval skill.

Thus our ‘ knight of arts and industry,’ in the words of Thomson,

— ‘ puts himself to Neptune’s school,
Fighting with winds and waves on the vext ocean’s pool.’

By the adoption of naval games, and by moderate tolls at the *fair*, to be held during the festivals (on the rock of Portland),

‘ a considerable sum might be expected ; and if that fair should be well planned, perhaps it might even vie with the fairs of Frankfort and Leipsic : bringing to England a vast resort of foreigners, and no inconsiderable import of foreign money.’ P. 178.

Besides periodical games, *triumphs*, which we omit, are crudely described.

The last object is essential—the consideration of the *expense*.

This ‘ volunteer architect ’ has not

‘ neglected to procure, from the best authority, an estimate of the expence of erecting and covering in the temple, and of rearing the column : and another estimate of the following works in bronze ;

namely, ninety-six statues, eight feet high, for the balustrades; twenty-four tritons for the pedestals of the flag-staves; sixteen groups of figures connected with the projecting ships; sixteen sea-horses as supporters of the eight external staircases; four altars, four lions, and four eagles; four tritons, on sea-horses, upon the abacus of the column; and the colossal statue. Besides these, he has made his own estimate for the purchase of sixty acres of land, as well as for the apparatus for securing the colossal statue in its place, and the cost of raising it: and he has the satisfaction to announce, that the whole, besides allowing liberally for unforeseen expences, comes within what he conceives the public will think reasonable bounds.' P. 201.

'The building of the column itself, and the shell of its double socle, if erected on Black-heath, would not amount to 682,000*l.*; and what would remain to be executed at the public expence, as before stated, allowing above 77,000*l.* for unforeseen expenses, would not, as it appears, exceed one million; but this sum we will, however, call the total.' P. 205.

A corporate body (comprehending statesmen, flag-officers, merchants, noblemen, and amateurs), and an architectural conservator, are necessary appendages.

The requisite *million* may either be raised in fourteen years, by a tax of sixpence *per* ton on British shipping, or by a lottery.

'In this case we might doubtless improve the sale of our tickets, by sprinkling through our lotteries prizes of honour, as well as prizes of profit. The holders of a given number of tickets, on opening the wheel, might be entitled to a statue in the colonnades of the Victorium, or the vestibule of the Hieronauticon; the holders of a given number of blanks, at the close of the drawing, might be entitled to a similar distinction; and other honours, such as busts, pictures, medals, &c. to liberal contributors, as amongst the founders of the naval temple, might easily be contrived.' P. 207.

The author transmits his labours, in expectation of *his* triumph.

'If the tokens of approbation, on examining his drawings, have not greatly deceived the author, the naval temple he has designed will rise into existence; and British navigation and geography thenceforward acknowledge no other first meridian of longitude than that which shall be marked on the globe by the noon-day shadow of its aspiring column.' P. 208.

A winged trident is engraved as a frontispiece, and a winged lyre, with a slight plan of the Neptunium, closes the work. We rather approve the skill of the engraving, than the genius of the designs. We prefer the general effect of the lyre to the trident.

The delight which sensations for the fine-arts convey to

the soul, and their influence 'mores enollire' (added to our deference for British art), have tempted us to contemplate this tedious work with a complacent attention, which its eccentricities scarcely merit. Nothing but the object of its author—'national glory'—could have detained us in his gymnasium.

We have given a general outline, and extracts sufficient to enable our readers to form their own opinion of this private gentleman, as a writer and as an architect. How his inventions 'will be classed by scientific' professors, 'remains to be seen.'

To raise and adorn his Hieronauticon, to regulate his games and his triumphs, he has trodden the *terra firma* of history, navigated the ocean of allegory, and soared on the wildest wings of imagination: yet neither his diffuse style, perplexed arrangement, distracting confusion of ill-assorted subjects, nor even our own less complicated taste, shall induce us to withhold respect for an ardent endeavour to increase the glory of our country: and, since splendid realities often owe their origin to the dreams of enthusiasm,

' *Excudent alii spirantia mollius æra*
Ducent de marmore'

fairer structures, and founded on a simpler system!

ART. IV.—*Natural Theology: or, Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity, collected from the Appearances of Nature. By William Paley, D.D. &c. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Faulder. 1802.*

OUR author's object is

' To vindicate the ways of God to man.'

But with what a plummet do we sound infinity? with what powers do we defend the omniscience of heaven, the providence of the Almighty? We tremble at the task; and, after a long life spent in tracing the wisdom of God in his works—after following them through air, earth, and sea—we behold every thing so much beyond human powers, so transcendent in excellence, that, for ourselves, we are accustomed to adore in silence. But we are far from contending that such a conduct is, in every instance, proper or praiseworthy. Doubtful skepticism, or open infidelity, prevails on all sides. A gradual scale from a fibre to a filament, from a filament to the most complicated organised structure, has been formed by some theorists. The question has been begged; and living molecules,

whose union is to constitute the human frame divine, have been supposed to exist in the parent stock, without a suggestion by what power the first were created. Theories bolder still have attributed the whole to chance, and have confidently asked, if from eternity—when jarring atoms have been exposed to an infinite variety of unions—some may not have occurred, which, as in the present system, may have been able to continue their respective species? To the two former hypotheses, no answer is necessary. The latter possesses a characteristic and intrinsic boldness, which demands more attention. We are called upon to prove a negative—impossible! We might deny the existence of eternity, and contend that there *was* a moment of creation; but our proofs would be with equal confidence denied. We are then compelled to assert, in turn, that the assumption implies greater impossibilities than the question—that the proof of the latter does not consist in the existence of peculiar powers, but in their continuance—in the capacity possessed of continuing the species unchanged, of correcting deviations, of supplying deficiencies. On this ground, we challenge a reply: their system affords none; for we are not on untrodden ground, having often thrown down the gauntlet, *visâ voce*.

If we consider the present work on Natural Theology in a general view, we have to regret that the author has not engaged in it to a greater extent. We know that the more deeply nature is examined, the more strong is the proof of a superior Almighty power. We have, on other occasions, lamented that the task is not undertaken by those who have most carefully examined the God of nature in the works of nature; and have felt some little disgust at the misconduct of those who have attempted to bend the bow of Ulysses, without his powers. On some occasions, we have remarked that the Deity is praised for consummate wisdom in doing what he has not attempted, and which, if it had been done, would have proved highly injurious to the individual and to the whole system. In other works, we have natural changes from second causes extolled as the contrivances of supreme wisdom. Such defence is to injure a cause rather than to assist it.

The perusal of the present volume has led us to other reflexions; and we now think that the cause of religion may be well supported by general, but guarded, views of nature; and that, from these, sufficient evidence of the 'existence and attributes of the Deity' may be deduced. Our author's caution and judgement prevent him from pushing his proofs to that extent which has occasionally excited the smile or the sneer of infidelity; and, when we examine the authorities

which Dr. Paley has produced, we find few on which he may not rest with confidence. We wished to have seen him acquainted with the later naturalists, particularly with Bonnet.

‘The following discussion’ (Dr. Paley observes in his Dedication) ‘alone was wanted to make up my works into a system: in which works, such as they are, the public have now before them, the evidences of natural religion, the evidences of revealed religion, and an account of the duties that result from both. It is of small importance, that they have been written in an order, the very reverse of that in which they ought to be read. I commend therefore the present volume to your lordship’s protection, not only as, in all probability, my last labor, but as the completion of a consistent and comprehensive design.’ P. vii.

The ‘state of the argument,’ and its ‘application,’ are conveyed in that clear persuasive manner, which must equally attract attention, and ensure conviction. The subject of the following discussion is somewhat deeper, and displays greater novelty of remark and reasoning.

‘One question may possibly have dwelt in the reader’s mind during the perusal of these observations, namely, Why should not the Deity have given to the animal the faculty of vision at once? Why this circuitous perception; the ministry of so many means? an element provided for the purpose; reflected from opaque substances, refracted through transparent ones; and both according to precise laws: then, a complex organ, an intricate and artificial apparatus, in order, by the operation of this element, and in conformity with the restrictions of these laws, to produce an image upon a membrane communicating with the brain? Wherefore all this? Why make the difficulty in order only to surmount it? If to perceive objects by some other mode than that of touch, or objects which lay out of the reach of that sense, were the thing purposed, could not a simple volition of the Creator have communicated the capacity? Why resort to contrivance, where power is omnipotent? Contrivance, by its very definition and nature, is the refuge of imperfection. To have recourse to expedients, implies difficulty, impediment, restraint, defect of power. This question belongs to the other senses, as well as to sight; to the general functions of animal life, as nutrition; secretion, respiration; to the œconomy of vegetables; and indeed to almost all the operations of nature. The question therefore is of very wide extent; and, amongst other answers which may be given to it, beside reasons of which probably we are ignorant, one answer is this. It is only by the display of contrivance, that the existence, the agency, the wisdom of the Deity, could be testified to his rational creatures. This is the scale by which we ascend to all the knowledge of our Creator which we possess, so far as it depends upon the phenomena, or the works of nature. Take away this, and you take away from us every subject of observation, and ground of reasoning; I mean as our rational faculties are formed at present. Whatever is done, God could have done, without the intervention of instruments or means: but it is in the construction of instruments, in

the choice and adaptation of means, that a creative intelligence is *scetl*. It is this which constitutes the order and beauty of the universe. God, therefore, has been pleased to prescribe limits to his own power, and to work his ends within those limits. The general laws of matter have perhaps the nature of these limits; its inertia, its re-action; the laws which govern the communication of motion, the refraction and reflection of light, the constitution of fluids non-elastic and elastic, the transmission of sound through the latter; the laws of magnetism, of electricity; and probably others yet undiscovered. These are general laws; and when a particular purpose is to be effected, it is not by making a new law, nor by the suspension of the old ones, nor by making them wind and bend and yield to the occasion (for nature with great steadiness adheres to, and supports them), but it is, as we have seen in the eye, by the interposition of an apparatus corresponding with these laws, and suited to the exigency which results from them, that the purpose is at length attained. As we have said, therefore, God prescribes limits to his power, that he may let in the exercise, and thereby exhibit demonstrations, of his wisdom. For then, *i. e.* such laws and limitations being laid down, it is as though one Being should have fixed certain rules; and, if we may so speak, provided certain materials; and, afterwards, have committed to another Being, out of these materials, and in subordination to these rules, the task of drawing forth a creation; a supposition which evidently leaves room, and induces indeed a necessity, for contrivance. Nay, there may be many such agents, and many ranks of these. We do not advance this as a doctrine either of philosophy or of religion; but we say that the subject may safely be represented under this view, because the Deity, acting himself by general laws, will have the same consequences upon our reasoning, as if he had proscribed these laws to another. It has been said, that the problem of creation was, "attraction and matter being given, to make a world out of them:" and, as above explained, this statement perhaps does not convey a false idea.' p. 41.

The work itself begins with great simplicity. If we strike our foot against a stone, and are asked how it came there, it may be said, that it always was there, and, without any external action or impulse, would remain in the same situation. If we find a watch in the same situation, the same reply would not be satisfactory, because it possesses such apparent marks of contrivance, that some prior cause must be supposed. The same idea is carried through the series of arguments with great success; and the mechanism of the eye and the ear are satisfactorily compared with the best exertions of the most consummate art, to show the infinite superiority of their respective contrivances, and particularly with regard to the different modifications of the organs adapted to different circumstances. In these arguments, the hypotheses of many modern philosophers are refuted in the same calm convincing manner, which appear in other sections of the present volume.

The archdeacon then divides the parts and functions of

animals into mechanical and immechanical—the former consisting of a structure easily comprehended, and acting upon principles which we can understand, and, to a certain degree, imitate—the latter, of organs, whose nature is unknown, but whose effects are obvious—‘*caussa latet; vis est notissima.*’

‘My object’ (he adds) ‘in the present chapter has been to teach three things: first, that it is a mistake to suppose, that, in reasoning from the appearances of nature, the imperfection of our knowledge proportionably affects the certainty of our conclusion; for in many cases it does not affect it at all: secondly, that the different parts of the animal frame may be classed and distributed, according to the degree of exactness with which we can compare them with works of art: thirdly, that the mechanical parts of our frame, or, those in which this comparison is most complete, although constituting, probably, the coarsest portions of nature’s workmanship, are the properest to be alleged as proofs and specimens of design.’ P. 98.

The functions more purely mechanical, or at least for a moment to be considered in that light, are the bony and muscular organs, with the vessels of different kinds, including the absorbing system. To the latter is added a masterly abstract of what has been hitherto ascertained respecting the process of digestion.

The gall-bladder and gall-ducts, the salivary-duct, the trachea, and the air-vessels of the lungs, are also regarded as parts of a vascular system; but, as our author properly observes, it is to weaken the argument to consider these separately. The whole should be examined in their subserviency to, and connexion with, each other.

We have not stopped to notice little trifling errors, which do not affect the main argument, and which are owing chiefly to the circumstance of its author writing professionally on a subject, without having studied it with the precision of a professional inquirer. On the subject, however, of the similarity of the two sides of the body, there is a most essential error. The resemblance of each side is by no means so exact as is represented. A painter knows that even the two sides of the face differ greatly, and chooses that which best preserves the general expression of the features. The anatomist finds that the distribution of the blood-vessels essentially differs in the antagonist sides. Those of the chest do not indeed contain different organs; for the heart is placed nearly in the centre, and its apex alone is felt to beat on the left side. In short, as we had formerly occasion to observe, man is a double animal: one side may be diseased, and the other in perfect health—one may die, and the other remain alive. The pineal gland, the heart, the intestinal

canal, are single organs; but the distribution of the nervous influence is supplied with such singular skill and wisdom, that the death of one side weakens only, without destroying, their powers—a contrivance, which alone, were every other part of the body kept from view, would point out a vast, if not an infinite, possession of wisdom and power.

The general observations, however, on the human body, considered as a connected series of powers and motions, its various parts so completely ‘packed,’ the whole arranged with so nice an attention to symmetry and to beauty, order even evinced by the interruption of the usual analogies, where these would be inconvenient or unsuitable, are highly judicious, and support, with the most desired success, the author’s chief endeavour.

The subjects of comparative anatomy, of peculiar organisations, and ‘prospective contrivances,’ might have perhaps been extended with advantage, but are sufficiently full for Dr. Paley’s purpose. The relation of different organs, or their fitness, by their combined action, to produce a given effect; the ‘compensation of parts,’ or organs adapted to supply defects in others; and the relation of animated bodies to inanimate nature, particularly that of the nature of the animal to the element in which he lives; lead the author into many minute and curious details, which will equally instruct and entertain the reader.

We were somewhat disappointed in the chapter on instinct. It is a subject of curious inquiry; and we have not yet seen it treated with that philosophical precision which it demands. Our author, however, pursues it so far as is necessary to his argument; and we ought not to require more. What we would suggest to the future investigator, is a research into the variations of instinctive conduct in different situations, if such really exist; and particularly to trace, in the younger part of the human race, whether any such principle as instinct be discoverable.—Our author’s reply to those who resolve the principle of instinct into the pleasure derived from the practice, is very satisfactory.

Some circumstances relative to insects are added in a separate chapter; but, on this subject, Dr. Paley is imperfectly informed. To suppose that the light of the glow-worm proceeds from phosphorus, because phosphorus emits light, shows little acquaintance with chemistry. The light separated by the worms is totally different, and shines very brilliantly in the rain. The following passage is somewhat fanciful, for the analogy is not quite correct; but the whole is ingenious and amusing.

‘Again; Europe has lately been surprised by the elevation of bo-

~~flies~~ in the air by means of a balloon. The discovery consisted in finding out a manageable substance, which was, bulk for bulk, lighter than air; and the application of the discovery was, to make a body composed of this substance bear up, along with its own weight, some heavier body which was attached to it. This expedient, so new to us, proves to be no other than what the author of nature has employed in the gossamir spider. We frequently see this spider's thread floating in the air, and extended from hedge to hedge, across a road or brook of four or five yards width. The animal which forms the thread, has no wings wherewith to fly from one extremity to the other of this line; nor muscles to enable it to spring or dart to so great a distance. Yet its Creator hath laid for it a path in the atmosphere; and after this manner. Though the animal itself be heavier than air, the thread which it spins from its bowels is specifically lighter. This is its balloon. The spider left to itself would drop to the ground; but, being tied to its thread, both are supported. We have here a very peculiar provision: and to a contemplative eye it is a gratifying spectacle, to see this insect wafted on her thread, sustained by a levity not her own, and traversing regions, which, if we examined only the body of the animal, might seem to have been forbidden to its nature.' P. 364.

The physiology of many plants is well explained, with the same view; and the whole chapter is highly entertaining:—its application renders it still more important. The chapters on the 'elements' and on 'astronomy' are not equally clear or correct. In the latter particularly, we perceive many vague and inconclusive representations. Dr. Paley, however, supposes, with great propriety, that the existence and attributes of the Deity are not very obviously or closely connected with, at least, what we know of astronomy.

From all that has been said, our author contends for 'the personality of the Deity;' in other words, that intelligence, contrivance, and power, must have a centre, in which the whole unites, and that this centre is the Supreme Being. He is hence led to consider the vague ideas of those who speak of nature, of the system of organised molecules and filaments, with appetencies and propensities, which determine the future form. On all these subjects, his remarks are peculiarly forcible and just.

The natural attributes of the Deity are omnipotence, omniscience, omnipresence, eternity, self-existence, necessary existence, and spirituality. These considerations lead to the unity of the Deity, and the divine goodness. The last subject is treated in a most masterly and satisfactory manner; and the chapter devoted to it displays, in the strongest light, the abilities, the cheerful benevolence, and the rational piety, of the author. We cannot enlarge on it; nor would we mutilate it by an extract. We shall transcribe only the two principal propositions, which Dr. Paley has fully established.

' The first is, " that, in a vast plurality of instances in which contrivance is perceived, the design of the contrivance is beneficial."

' The second, " that the Deity has superadded pleasure to animal sensations, beyond what was necessary for any other purpose, or when the purpose, so far as it was necessary, might have been effected by the operation of pain." P. 498.

The last subject is the origin of evil, on which we meet with little novelty of sentiment or language. It must be resolved, as usual, by our blindness and incapacity of perceiving the whole chain of causes and effects, and the necessary 'crossings' which must occasionally arise from the regular actions of general laws. The observations on the frequent *appearance* of accident or chance are also very judicious. We cannot conclude with better words than the author's own; for he wants not our commendation; and we have already bestowed the highest in our power—a strict attention to his work, cheerful praise, and occasional hints of slight and venial errors.

' Upon the whole; in every thing which respects this awful, but, as we trust, glorious change, we have a wise and powerful being, (the author, in nature, of infinitely various expedients for infinitely various ends,) upon whom to rely for the choice and appointment of means, adequate to the execution of any plan which his goodness or his justice may have formed, for the moral and accountable part of his terrestrial creation. That great office rests with him: be it ours to hope and to prepare; under a firm and settled persuasion, that, living and dying, we are his; that life is passed in his constant presence, that death resigns us to his merciful disposal.' P. 585.

ART. V.—*The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy.*
Vol. VII. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Payne and Mackinlay. 1800.

APOLOGIES for our delay in noticing the present volume are unnecessary. For the procrastination of one month, however, we have a most satisfactory excuse to plead, since the MS. of this article was unfortunately consumed in the late fire, which destroyed the premises of the proprietor of this journal. Complaints, however, and apologies, are equally useless; and we will endeavour to retrace our former steps, with the advantage of more matured reflexion, and somewhat more extended inquiry.

' I. On the Precession of the Equinoxes. By the Rev. Matthew Young, D. D. S. F. T. C. D. & M. R. I. A.'

It is well known that sir Isaac Newton has fallen into some error in his calculation of the sun's force to produce the precession of the equinoxes; and, in consequence of it, the precession appears to be one half less than the truth. The

source of this error is, however, not generally agreed on. Various other solutions have been given, which have been received as genuine: but it is our author's object to inquire, whether, in these solutions, secret and hitherto unobserved errors may not be detected, which, being equal and contrary, compensate each other, and leave the result correct, though the premisses may be faulty. According to Newton's calculation, the quantity of the precession arising from the sun alone amounts to $10'' 33''$.

But it is well known, that the true quantity of the precession, arising from the action of the solar force, is nearly double this quantity. Since therefore the correction of this third lemma will not account for the great difference between the result of Newton's calculation and the truth, we must look for the cause of the difference elsewhere. Simpson is of opinion, that it arises from this, that the momentum of a very slender ring revolving about one of its diameters, is only the half of what it would be if the revolution were to be performed in a plane, about the centre of the ring; and therefore, that all conclusions, which do not take this into the account, must be too little by just one half. But it is evident, that this cannot be the true cause of the difference, because Newton did actually consider, that the motion of a ring round one of its diameters was less than when it revolved round its centre, though he has differed from Simpson in the ratio which he has assigned of their motions in these two cases; and when the ratio of their motions is admitted to be as one to two, and the other corrections proposed by Simpson are also made, the total error on these accounts is found to be but $1,5''$, as has been already shewn.

Mr. Milner, in his paper on this subject in the 69th vol. of the Philosophical Transactions, agrees with Frisi in thinking, that the error lies in Newton's assumption, that the recession of the nodes of a rigid annulus and a solitary moon, revolving in the perimeter of the annulus, are equal; whereas in truth, as they assert, (though erroneously, as we shall presently shew), the recession of the latter is but one half of that of the former.' p. 10.

The author then examines, particularly, whether the recession of the nodes of a rigid annulus be indeed double the recession of the nodes of a solitary moon, as has been asserted. From this investigation, which we cannot abridge, it appears that Newton properly supposes them to be equal, but on insufficient principles, because he did not consider the counteracting centrifugal force. When this deduction was made, the conclusion was erroneous,—

—because, omitting the consideration of the centrifugal force as before, he conceived, that the motion of a solitary annulus and of a ring attached to a sphere, were produced by the same efficient force; whereas in this latter case, the centrifugal force of the annulus vanishes, and therefore the whole force of the sun becomes efficient;

that is, the efficient force in the case of a ring adhering to the equator of a globe, is double the efficient force in the case of a solitary ring; and therefore the quantity of the precession, estimated on this false hypothesis, comes out too little by just one half.' p. 18.

In this way, an attached annulus requires the double efficient force of a solitarily revolving ring, which has a double motion round its centre and one of its diameters. This double motion constitutes the whole difference; and, if the corrected quantity of $10' 33''$ be augmented in the ratio of two to one, we shall arrive at the solution of Simpson, D'Alembert, and the most eminent mathematicians. Some collateral circumstances and inquiries conclude this very valuable paper.

II. General Demonstrations of the Theorems for the Sines and Cosines of Multiple Circular Arcs, and also of the Theorems for expressing the Powers of Sines and Cosines by the Sines and Cosines of Multiple Arcs; to which is added a Theorem by help whereof the same Method may be applied to demonstrate the Properties of Multiple Hyperbolic Areas. By the Rev. John Bripley, A.M. Andrews' Professor of Astronomy, and M.R.I.A.

This article is incapable of abridgement, and can only be read with advantage, by mathematicians, in the work itself.

III. Remarks on the Velocity with which Fluids issue from Apertures in the Vessels which contain them. By the Rev. Matthew Young, D.D. S.F.T.C.D. and M.R.I.A.

This subject has not, we think, been considered with proper views. The motion of a body, passing through a cylinder, cannot be compared with a body falling vertically, since, in the former case, it assumes a spiral direction; as, for instance, a ball through the barrel of a gun not rifled, and water through a funnel. If the motion of the latter be observed, by that of a body floating on the water to be discharged, it will appear that the water *over* the aperture is the last which passes through it. We cannot follow this inquiry, and our author's reasoning, minutely, without the plate: but we think the latter often exceptionable; and would wish to see this subject pursued experimentally, by immersing, in water, bodies of somewhat superior, equal, and inferior, specific gravity to itself.

IV. A new Method of resolving Cubic Equations. By Tho. Meredith, A.B. Trinity College, Dublin.

The roots of a cubic equation of this form, viz. $x^3 + 3cx^2 + 3c^2x + c^3 - a = 0$, which differs from a power only in its last term, can, as our author asserts, be found, by transposing a , and extracting the root on each side, provided a

be not an impossible binomial. The 'problem,' therefore, is to reduce any cubic equation to this form, in which the square of the co-efficient of the second term is triple the co-efficient of the third. The solution is highly ingenious, but, in some parts, not very intelligible.

'V. On the Force of Testimony in establishing Facts contrary to Analogy. By the Rev. Matthew Young, D.D. S.F.T.C.D. and M.R.I.A.'

This article contains a good general abstract of the doctrine of chances and probabilities; but, neither from the nature of the subject, nor the manner of treating it, can it be the object of our particular remarks. The only point to which we can speak is the question, whether testimony derive its evidence from experience, or from an intuitive knowledge antecedent to experience. Yet even this disquisition is rather verbal than argumentative. The chief question should be, whether we learn to discriminate the nature of testimony from experience or intuition. The child, who never thought of deceiving, cannot expect deceit, any more than he would suspect the existence of a nation without eyes or mouths. If told there are such, he has no motive for disbelieving the tale, because he had never himself invented a false report. It is not that belief is intuitive, but that falsehood is unknown. The computation of probabilities, which follows, is not, in every instance, correct; but it would lead us too far to attempt the detection of the fallacies which we think we have discovered in one or two parts of the reasoning: they are not, however, fundamental, nor very important.

'VI. On the Number of the primitive Colorific Rays in Solar Light. By the Rev. Matthew Young, D.D. S.F.T.C.D. and M.R.I.A.'

The colours, formed by the refracted light of the sun, are generally said to be seven; viz. red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet. These have been reduced to three; viz. red, yellow, and blue. The orange is supposed, without contradiction, to be compounded of red and yellow; the green, of yellow and blue; the indigo, of blue and violet. But whence the violet?—Our author, in proving the former combinations, shows that the rays of even the same colour are differently refrangible, and that they therefore occasionally mix and overlap each other; consequently they will generate the intermediate colours. Thus sir Isaac Newton could not decompound, for instance, all the green rays, though the conterminous ones were not so obstinate; that is, where the union was more complete, the component parts could not be easily separated—for the coincident rays of different colours are equally refrangible. The violet, how-

ever, which occasions the difficulty, is composed of blue and red: but how can the red reach the other extremity of the spectrum?—One circumstance is, however, obvious—that the *circular* beam is expanded into the *rectilineal* spectrum. The circle, then, thus expanded, thus forcibly broken, cannot be supposed to have each end separated with mathematical exactness. Some of the rays from each extremity will be intermixed; and thus the blue at one extremity is of the indigo hue; and the red, as our author has shown, mixed with rays decidedly blue. Dr. Young does not exactly follow this idea, but rather considers the red rays as scattered through the whole spectrum. He proves the general point, however—*viz.* that there are only three primary colours—very satisfactorily. May not the rays or different portions of the luminous beam have some lateral attractions, mechanical rather than chemical?

‘VII. Observations on the Theory of Electric Attraction and Repulsion. By the Rev. George Miller, D.D. S.F.T.C.D. and M.R.I.A.’

Mr. Miller's object is to reconcile the opposite appearances of attraction and repulsion to the agency of a single fluid. We cannot employ, in the explanation of his opinion, a shorter or more explicit language than his own.

‘Possibly a more distinct application of a principle, already in some degree adopted both by Dr. Priestley and Mr. Cavallo, may remove all the difficulties of this inquiry. At least I will hope, that it may lead to such a consideration of the question, as may subject the merits of the theory itself to a fair and decisive discussion. This principle is saturation. Dr. Priestley has explained the communication of the redundant fluid of a body positively electrified to another, a part of whose fluid had been previously expelled, by supposing that it was more strongly attracted by the other body, than by its own which had more than its natural share; and Mr. Cavallo has in the same manner accounted for the mutual attraction of bodies in different states of electricity.

‘In applying this principle to the solution of electric phenomena, three forces must be considered: 1st, the attraction subsisting between each body and its own portion of the electric fluid; 2dly, the attraction which may subsist between each body and the portion of fluid belonging to the other; and 3dly, the repulsion subsisting between the two portions of the electric fluid.

‘That the attraction subsisting between two bodies in opposite states of electricity may be explained, it is necessary to consider previously the case of two bodies in their natural or ordinary state. In this case the force subsisting between each body and its own portion of the electric fluid is not in a state of saturation, because it must be sufficiently strong to counterbalance the elasticity of the fluid. Each body is therefore still capable of being attracted by the fluid belonging to the other, and each portion of the fluid is also capable of such attraction.

This force, if it should operate alone, would draw the bodies together; but the mutual repulsion of the two portions of the fluid tends to produce the opposite effect. The quiescence of the bodies proves the equality of these forces.

‘ If two bodies in opposite states of electricity be brought together, the body positively electrified cannot be attracted towards the remaining electric fluid belonging to the other, because this body may be considered as saturated with the fluid, and that portion of the fluid as saturated with solid matter. For the opposite reasons an attraction will take place between the body negatively electrified and the fluid belonging to the former. It remains to be shewn, that this attractive force may exceed the mutual repulsion of the two portions of fluid. It must be observed, that the repulsion remains the same, because the sum of the two quantities of fluid is not altered; whereas the attraction is augmented by the unequal distribution of the fluid. The one body is charged with more fluid than that which its own attracting force is capable of retaining, and the redundant fluid will consequently be strongly impelled towards the other body, whose attractive power is at the same time increased by the deficiency of its own portion of fluid.

‘ In the case of two bodies similarly electrified the bodies may be either both positively, or both negatively electrified. When they are both positively electrified, they are both saturated with the electric fluid; and when they are both negatively electrified, both remaining portions of the electric fluid are reciprocally saturated with solid matter. In neither case therefore can any attraction take place between either body and the fluid belonging to the other. Consequently, the repulsion existing between the two portions of the fluid must operate without resistance, and the two bodies be repelled from each other.’
P. 146.

The same solution is supposed to apply to magnetical attraction and repulsion.

‘ VIII. A general Demonstration of the Property of the Circle discovered by Mr. Cotes, deduced from the Circle only. By the Rev. John Brinkley, A. M. Andrews’ Professor of Astronomy, and M. R. I. A.’

The elegance and utility of this theorem are generally acknowledged; yet no correct and satisfactory demonstration has yet been offered, at least from the circle alone. The present demonstration appears equally clear and correct, and reflects the highest credit on the mathematical abilities of its author.

‘ IX. Additional Observations on the Proportion of real Acid in the three antient known mineral Acids, and on the Ingredients in various neutral Salts and other Compounds. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.’

The immense labour which this paper required, can only be estimated by the practical chemist: it, indeed, merits the highest commendation, and is of the greatest practical importance. Our account of it can, however, convey no ade-

quate idea of its excellence, as it consists of independent facts. A single extract would be to bring a brick as a specimen of a house;—to abridge or to transcribe the whole would be equally difficult. The fundamental experiments, on which the results rest, are detailed in the fourth volume of the Transactions; and the different objects which influenced the French chemists in similar experiments, we have explained in our review of the *Annales de Chymie*. The article before us, which contains a vast bulk of information, extends to 142 pages.

'X. Essay on Human Liberty. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.'

This is a very comprehensive and able defence of human liberty, in opposition to the necessarians; in which Dr. Priestley's arguments—who, in our author's opinion, has stated them with the greatest clearness and accuracy—are distinctly noticed. The novelty of manner—for we perceive little more—consists in the precision with which Mr. Kirwan employs his different terms: yet we own that this does not greatly alter the state of the question: nor will the distinction between 'necessary' and 'certain' really decide it.

'XI. Synoptical View of the State of the Weather at Dublin in the Year 1798. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.'

The range of the barometer was from 30.88, in a very thick fog, in February, to 28.80 in April: the mean was 29.68. The thermometer was from 81° (June) to 19° (December): the mean 49.22; the mean of April 50.40. The rain amounted to 20.16 inches. There were 191 days of rain, and 12 of snow. In July, there were 28 days of rain; and, even in June—the driest month—12 days. Our readers will soon perceive that the average number of rainy days in every month was very nearly 16—more than half. The storms were chiefly from the west, and almost constantly connected with some point of the south.

'XV. Synoptical View of the State of the Weather at Dublin in the Year 1799. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. Pres. R. I. A. and F. R. S.'

We step on to the present article, as it is so nearly allied to the former. The barometer was from 30.75 to 28.86: the thermometer from 70° (July) to 23° (January and December); the mean, 46° 5'. The mean heat of April is only 40.75. April was, however, a very wet month, as rain fell on 23 days, and snow on 2. The whole quantity of rain

* We do not see how the mean heats or heights of the barometer are taken: in general, they are apparently the means of the mean of each month: these do not, however, correspond with the mean of the highest and lowest degree.

amounted to 22.58 inches, though there were only 160 rainy days.

‘ XII. An Abstract of Observations of the Weather of 1798, made by Henry Edgeworth, Esq; at Edgeworthstown in the County of Longford in Ireland.’

At Edgeworthstown, in the county of Longford, the rain amounted to 35.56 inches; but there were only 132 rainy days. Of these, 23 occurred in July; and 6.37 inches of rain fell. In January, however, 5.80 inches fell in 14 days only. The barometer was from 30.25 to 28.24; the mean, 29.50. The thermometer was from 26° to 18° ; the mean 48° : the mean heat of April 50° . The most windy month, in 1796 and 1797, was January. The number of windy days, in these two years, was 325, of which 51 occurred in that month. In 1798, there were 157 windy days, of which 21 occurred in October.

‘ XIII. A Method of expressing, when possible, the Value of one variable Quantity in integral Powers of another and constant Quantities, having given Equations expressing the Relation of these variable Quantities. In which is contained the general Doctrine of Reversion of Series, of approximating to the Roots of Equations, and of the Solution of fluxional Equations by Series. By the Rev. John Brinkley, A. M. Andrews’ Professor of Astronomy, and M. R. I. A.’

This excellent and valuable article is incapable of abridgement.

‘ XIV. Account of the Weather at Londonderry in the Year 1799. By William Paterson, M. D. and M. R. I. A.’

This table chiefly relates to the winds and rain. The winds are almost exclusively from the south. The fair days were 128, the showery 198, and the wet 39. In the preceding year, these numbers were 126, 207, and 32, respectively. The lightning seems to have been frequent. The greatest heat was in June; *viz.* 74° : the greatest cold in January, 21° . The annual quantity of rain in 1799, 1798, and 1797, was 36, 33, and 31 inches, respectively.

The only paper in the class of polite literature is the following: *viz.*

‘ XVI. Some Observations upon the Greek Accents. By Arthur Browne, Esq. Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin.’

The use of the Greek accent, and the ancient Greek pronunciation, have been the subject of much disquisition; and an abstract of the controversy on this subject is premised: yet the Greek has been a language of conversation within a few centuries; and even the modern Greek does not greatly differ from the ancient, except in some slight variations, and the addition of a few words. Mr. Brown, having met with

some modern Greeks, was induced to inquire into the disputed point, whether they read by accent or quantity; as, in this respect, they did not, perhaps, greatly vary from their ancestors.

'The result' (of our author's first conversation) 'was, to my great surprise, that the practice of the modern Greeks is different from any of the theories contained in the books I have mentioned: it is true they have not two pronunciations for prose and for verse, and in both they read by accent, and so far confirm the theory of the learned bishop, the latest writer I have mentioned; but they make accent the cause of quantity; they make it govern and control quantity; they make the syllable long on which the acute accent falls, and they allow the acute accent to change the real quantity: in these latter respects therefore they agree with Mr. Primatt, but they desert him when he therefore concludes that poetry is not to be read by accent—they always reading poetry as well as prose by accent. Whether any inference can hence be drawn as to the pronunciation of the antients, I must leave, after what I have premised above, to men of more learning, but I think it at least so probable as to make it worth while to communicate to the Academy the instances which occurred in proof of this assertion more particularly. Of the two first persons whom I met, one, the steward of the ship, an inhabitant of the island of Cephalonia, had had a school education: he read Euripides and translated some easier passages without much difficulty. By a stay in this country of near two years he was able to speak English very tolerably, as could the captain and several of the crew, and almost all of them spoke Italian fluently. The companion however of the steward could speak only modern Greek, in which I could discover that he was giving a description of the distress in which the ship had been, and though not able to understand the context could plainly distinguish many words, such as *διδα*—*φυλον*, and amongst the rest the sound of *Αθηνας*, pronounced short; this awoke my curiosity, which was still more heightened when I observed that he said *Αθηνας* long, with the same attention to the alteration of the accent with the variety of case, which a boy would be taught to pay at a school in England. Watching therefore more closely, and asking the other to read some ancient Greek, I found that they both uniformly pronounced according to accent, without any attention to long or short syllables where accent came in the way; and on their departure, one of them having bade me good day, by saying *Καλημέρα*, to which I answered *Καλημέρα*, he with strong marks of reprobation set me right, and repeated *Καλημέρα*; and with like censure did the captain upon another occasion observe upon my saying *Σοκράτης* instead of *Σοκράτες*.

'I now felt a vehement wish to know whether they made the distinction in this respect usually made between verse and prose, but from the little scholarship of the two men with whom I had conversed, from the ignorance of a third whom I afterwards met, (who however read Lucian with ease, though he did not seem ever to have heard of the book,) and on account of my imperfect mode of conversing with them all, I had little hopes of satisfaction on the point, nor was I clear that they perfectly knew the difference between verse and prose.' p. 366.

Afterwards, repeating his inquiry to men of superior education, the result was not very different.

‘ Both the Greeks repeatedly assured us that verse as well as prose was read by accent, and not by quantity, and exemplified it by reading several lines of Homer, with whose name they seemed perfectly well acquainted.

‘ I shall give an instance or two of their mode of reading:

‘ Βῆ δ’ ἀκίων παρὰ θῖνα πολυφλοίσβοιο θαλάσσης,
Τὸν δ’ ἀπαμειβόμενος προσέφη πόδας ὠκὺς Ἀχιλλεύς,
Ἐς δ’ ἔρετας ἐπιτηδὺς ἀγείρομαι, ἐς δ’ ἐκατόμβην.

‘ They made the *ι* in *ἀκίων*—*προσέφη* and *ἐρέτας* long.

‘ But when they read

‘ Κλυθὶ μιν, Ἀργυρότῳ, ὃς Χρόσῃ ἀμφιείδεται,

they made the second syllable of the first word *Κλυθὶ* short, notwithstanding the acute accent: on my asking why, they desired me to look back on the circumflex on the first syllable, and said it thence necessarily followed, for it is impossible to pronounce the first syllable with the great length which the circumflex denotes, and not to shorten the second. The testimony of the schoolmaster might be vitiated, but what could be stronger than that of these ignorant mariners as to the vulgar common practice of modern Greece, and it is remarkable that this confirms the opinion of bishop Horsley, that the tones of words in connection are not always the same with the tones of solitary words, though in those of more than one syllable the accentual marks do not change their position. I must here add that these men confirmed an observation of our late revered and lamented president, that we are much mistaken in our idea of the supposed lofty sound of *πολυφλοίσβοιο θαλάσσης*; that the borderers on the coast of the Archipelago take their ideas from the gentle laving of the shore by a summer wave, and not from the roaring of a winter ocean, and they accordingly pronounced it *polyphlissēo thalasses*.’ P. 369.

From these circumstances, our author thinks that what has been supposed to be peculiar to the English—*viz.* prolonging the sound of the syllable on which the acute accent falls—is true of every language. In the English, indeed, accents and quantity agree; so that no difficulty remains. In other languages, the hypothesis has been opposed, as destructive of rhythm. This our author denies, admitting only that it will destroy the metre or quantity; and shows, with some success, that to read by quantity, without an attention to accent, destroys the force of poetry of different languages.

‘ It will be asked then what is the use of metre or measure in verse, if we are not to read by it; and here is the grand difficulty, and I own with candor I cannot answer it with perfect satisfaction to my own mind: to those indeed who say we are to read by accent in prose, it

may be equally asked what is the use of long or short syllables in prose, if we are not to attend to them when accent comes in the way: but to gentlemen on the other side, I can only answer, that in the first place accent doth not always interfere, and then quantity is our guide, and accent often accords with quantity. Secondly, metre determines the number of feet or measures in each verse, and thereby produces a general analogy and harmony through the whole, and it is to be observed, that, as I apprehend, accent doth not change the number of feet, though it doth the nature or species of them. Thus when we read

‘ *Arma virumque cāno, Trōjæ qui primus ab oris,*

we do not make more feet than when we scan the line, nor employ more time than in pronouncing the next line in which the accent happens to accord with the quantity, viz.

‘ *Italiam fato profugus, Lavinaque venit.*

‘ Thirdly, The poet in measuring his verse certainly must be confined to some certain number and order of long and short syllables, in order to produce a concordance through the whole, and even to regulate the position of accent, which though not subdued by quantity will certainly have some relation to it, *euphoniæ gratiâ*; but surely the length or shortness of a syllable cannot determine where emphasis shall be placed—that must depend on the meaning and the thought; and it would be most absurd for the poet to say to the reader, you shall not rest upon this emphatic and significative word because its syllables are short, and wherever there is a rest, there must be length and intonation.’ P. 375.

This ingenious paper, which merits particular attention from the polite scholar, concludes with a letter in modern Greek, which, with a little attention, may be easily read by those who have been initiated in the works of Plato and Xenophon. We own, however, that the author does not merit the title of *ATTICIZANS*.

ART. VI.—*An Account of the English Colony in New South Wales, from its first Settlement in January 1788, to August 1801: with Remarks on the Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the Native Inhabitants of that Country. To which are added, Some Particulars of New Zealand; compiled, by Permission, from the MSS. of Lieutenant-Governor King; and an Account of a Voyage performed by Captain Flinders and Mr. Bass; by which the Existence of a Strait separating Van Diemen's Land from the Continent of New Holland was ascertained. Abstracted from the Journal of Mr. Bass. By Lieutenant-Colonel Collins, of the Royal Marines, &c. Illustrated by Engravings. Vol. II. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

VARIOUS have been the circumstances which have repeatedly called our attention to this new colony, at the east-

ern extremity of the globe—to this reputed continent, which looks, with stern defiance, on the western world. On the first attempt at colonising it, we hesitated as to the plan, and were fearful it would be found inconvenient and expensive—perhaps useless, if not dangerous. When we looked at Colonel Collins's first volume, our apprehensions and skepticism were not lessened; yet we saw, or perhaps wished to see, the seeds of reformation taking root, virtue succeeding (by example, and the innate peace which a life of virtue inspires) to the worst of vices,—the habits of order, to conduct the most criminal and depraved. We fear the hopes thus entertained were delusive—coloured by our wishes, embodied by our expectations. Whatever may be the eventual success of the colony, it will not be derived from any extensive or lasting reformation of its involuntary inhabitants.

The first volume of this work, published in 1798, occurs in our 25th volume, where we explained, at some length, the situation of the colony, and its external circumstances, with some facts of importance to its natural history. As a colony of convicts, its history, furnished to us in the æra subsequent to that publication, is short, and not very satisfactory. Reformation proceeds with steps peculiarly slow. Depravity of every kind is neither depressed by punishment nor by the few examples of a different kind; and mischiefs the most serious, involving the perpetrators themselves, are constantly committed. Cultivation advances with little activity: yet, as it is unremittingly pursued, some progress must be made; and perhaps the colony may now supply itself with corn. At no great distance, the supply of fresh provisions may be procured from its own fields; and the herds, the offspring of cows and bulls which once strayed, have produced already, perhaps, sufficient stock for that purpose, could it be ascertained or commanded at pleasure. Goats do not succeed so well as sheep; but, of all animals, swine seem to flourish best.

The extent of country now cleared is considerable; yet the public buildings are few, and frequently destroyed by the malice or mischief of the villains destined to cultivate the spot. The climate, however, is in itself uncertain; and the drought so frequently ruins the crops, that the colony cannot be secure without foreign assistance, unless it have at least two years' stock in its granaries. The natives, who equal the convicts in depravity and cruelty, are, like other savages, subject to unreasonable and unsuspected bursts of passion; and at the same time possess that tendency to wanton barbarity, which would disgrace the worst of the savage tribes, and which is equalled only in some of the South-Sea Islands. As subsistence is with difficulty procured, the mur-

der of their wives and children is not uncommon. A child is interred alive in the grave of its mother ; and the future mother will, at the risk of her own life, often destroy the child in her womb. In other countries, colonisation has often drawn a tear from humanity, when reflecting on the oppression of innocent natives. Here, on the contrary, we find no oppression. Brutes who, merit the severest chastisement, are left in possession of customs the most degrading to human beings, and perpetrate the worst crimes, without the apprehension of punishment, which they contrive to escape or elude.

If we examine the real benefits of this new colony, we shall not find them, at present, considerable ; while what they may be, is still uncertain. It is a convenient spot, in time of war, for the whalers of the Pacific : and, if colonel Collins's suggestions be attended to, it may become still more convenient, as trye-houses may be established on the coast, and the blubber refined on shore, while the ships are employed in adding to the stock. In time of war, also, Spanish prizes may be brought into this port, and condemned, which could not be carried to a more distant court of admiralty ; and perhaps, hereafter, some advantage may be drawn from its flax, one great object of the colonisation.

The productions of the country itself are neither numerous nor valuable : yet, in salt, coals, and iron, it seems to abound ; and the iron is said to be of an excellent quality.

In this respect, its indigenous treasures may be useful to the colony, and contribute to the establishment of a dock-yard. The distance is, however, too great for exportation, unless it were possible to form a commercial communication with Spanish America or with China. In such case, the iron of Australasia might command the gold of Peru, the silk and porcelain of Nanquin. The idea may, at present, appear Utopian ; but another century may behold it realised.

The additions made to our knowledge of the interior, by the work before us, are few. Hills are seen to rise above hills, from Mount Hunter, the highest ground that has been climbed ; but no very lofty mountain has been discovered. We have suspected Australasia to be a groupe of islands, for one among several reasons, that it does not abound in large rivers, at least on the eastern side. Even the Hawkesbury has an eastern course only for a short distance. It seems to arise from the south, and to pursue a northerly direction before it trends to the east. The course of all the other rivulets is from south to north.

It is singular that so small a portion only of this vast island has hitherto been explored ; and it can only be accounted for from the few persons at the governor's command, to

whom such an attempt could be entrusted, together with the difficulty of carrying a sufficient stock of provisions. The difficulties of exploring by sea are not equally numerous; and the most interesting part of this volume consists in the discoveries of Mr. Bass and lieutenant Flinders on the south. Mr. Bass began the attempt in a whale-boat, and afterwards joined Mr. Flinders. The latter is again engaged in a second and similar attempt; but we have not yet heard of his success.

Before, however, we speak of the more distant investigation, we must notice one of the most interesting journeys in the interior. Mount Taurus, we may premise, is on the south of Mount Hunter.

‘ Toward the latter end of the month a party set off on an excursion to the cow-pasture plains. On reaching Mount Taurus, a distinct herd of the wild cattle, 67 in number, was seen. It was conjectured that this valuable collection of cattle had so considerably increased, as to find a convenience in dividing into different herds, thereby preventing those quarrels which might frequently happen among their males. This was confirmed by their falling-in with, in another place, a herd, in which there could not have been fewer than 170 of these animals. A couple of days were pleasantly occupied in examining this part of the country, which exhibited the beautiful appearance of a luxuriant and well-watered pasturage. The latitude of Mount Taurus was found to be $34^{\circ} 16' S.$ and the river Nepean was discovered to take its course close round the south side of this hill. Two gentlemen who were of this party having, at their setting out, proposed to walk from Mount Taurus in as direct a line as the country would admit, to the sea-coast, a whale boat was ordered to wait for them about five leagues to the southward of Botany Bay. They expected to have reached the coast in one day, but they did not reckon on having full 25 miles of a rugged and mountainous road to cross. Making their course a little to the southward of east, they fell in with the boat very conveniently, and Mr. Bass, one of the gentlemen, described their route to have lain, the greatest part of the way, over nothing but high and steep ridges of hills, the land becoming more rocky and barren as they drew near the sea coast. In each of the vallies formed by these hills they found a run of fresh water, in some places of considerable depth and rapidity. The direction of these streams or runs being to the northward, they were supposed to fall into a harbour which lay about five or six miles to the southward of Port Solander, and had obtained the name of Port Hacking, the pilot of that name having had the honour of the discovery.

‘ A church clock having been brought to the settlement in the *Rebecca* when that ship arrived from England, and no building fit for its reception having been since erected, preparations were now making for constructing a tower fit for the purpose; to which might be added a church, whenever at a future day the increase of labourers might enable the governor to direct such an edifice to be built.

‘ One mill not being sufficient to grind the flour required by the in-

habitants at Sydney, the stonemasons were employed in breaking out and preparing stone for another at that place.

'The blacksmith's shop, begun in the last month, was nearly completed at the end of this.

'The weather was observed to be growing warm. Toward the middle of the month strong southerly winds, with rainy and unsettled weather, prevailed, particularly at the change of the moon.' p. 50.

The travels of Wilson furnish nothing decisive.

Mr. Bass discovered that Van Diemen's Land did not, in reality, belong to New Holland, but formed a separate island, which was divided from what, to be more easily intelligible, we shall *now* call the continent, by a strait. We thus, at once, cut off nearly six degrees of latitude from New Holland, and greatly facilitate the passage from the Indian to the Pacific, as, off the southern point of Van Diemen's Land, or soon after the navigator enters the Pacific, he meets with a steady, and often a pretty violent, north-wester. The short account of Mr. Bass's first discovery we shall transcribe.

'Toward the latter end of the month, Mr. Bass, the surgeon of the *Reliance*, returned from an excursion in an open boat to the southward, after an absence of twelve weeks. This gentleman, who had little to occupy him while his ship was refitting, disliking an idle life, possessing with a good constitution a mind and body strong and vigorous, and being endowed with great good sense, ingenuity, and observation, requested the governor to allow him a boat, and permit him to man her with volunteers from the king's ships; proposing to go along the coast, and make such observations as might be in his power. The governor readily consenting, he set out, as well provided as the size of his boat would allow; and in her, against much adverse wind and bad weather, he persevered, as far to the southward as the latitude $40^{\circ} 00'$, visiting every opening in the coast; but only in one place, to the southward and westward of Point Hicks, finding a harbour capable of admitting ships. There was every appearance of an extensive strait, or rather an open sea, between the latitudes of 39° and 40° south, and that Van Diemen's Land consisted (as had been conjectured) of a groupe of islands lying off the southern coast of the country.

'It appeared from Mr. Bass's account, that there was but very little good ground to the southward. His occasional excursions into the interior, situated as he found himself with an open boat, in which he could carry but a small stock of provisions, could not be very extensive; he, however, went far enough to discover that there was but little good land near the sea; but, had it even been superior to those parts which were known, the want of harbours, even for small vessels, would lessen its value much. He regretted that he had not been possessed of a better vessel, which would have enabled him to circumnavigate Van Diemen's Land.' p. 93.

The pursuit of this investigation by lieutenant Flinders

and Mr. Bass affords some very interesting remarks, which will be of no inconsiderable importance to the geologist. We regret that it was not accompanied by Mr. Flinders's chart, since, without this or some such assistance, it is not easily intelligible. We have employed, for our own purpose, Mr. Pinkerton's map of New Holland, which is not, however, perfectly consonant with the description. We shall, nevertheless, endeavour to convey a sufficiently adequate idea of the whole.

The strait discovered by Mr. Bass, as we have already said, divides Van Diemen's Land from New Holland; and the former seems to lie, with respect to the latter, somewhat as Terra del Fuego to the southern promontory of the American continent. Van Diemen's Land now, therefore, forms an island, perhaps a groupe of islands; but with this circumstance we are not acquainted. Its northern part is called Port Dalrymple; and on the eastern side of the strait are 'Kent's Group' and 'Furneaux Islands;' on the west, nearer Van Diemen's Land, and opposite to its north-western promontory, are Hunter's Islands. Furneaux Islands, which offer the first subject of remark, are granite, with, in general, a scanty vegetation, and stunted trees of inconsiderable size. The blocks of granite lie, as usual, loose and unconnected. The following remarks relate to 'Preservation Island,' (one of Furneaux) so called from its being the spot in which the shipwrecked crew of the Sidney Cove were preserved.

'The great bulk of these blocks renders them so conspicuous, that the attention is first struck with them upon approaching the island. But, besides granite, there is on the north side, where the island is particularly low and narrow, a slip of calcareous earth, of a few hundred yards in length, which discovers itself near the surface of the water. It is not for the most part pure, for broken pieces of the granite are mixed with it in various proportions. Some parts are a mere mass of these broken pieces cemented together by the calcareous matter; whilst others are an almost perfect chalk, and are capable of being burnt into excellent lime. Broken sea shells and other exuviae of marine animals are apparent throughout the whole mass.

'Upon the beach at the foot of this chalky rock, was found a very considerable quantity of the black metallic particles which appear in the granite as black shining specks, and are in all probability grains of tin.

'To find this small bed of the remains of shell animals, of which chalk is formed wherever found, in such an unexpected situation, excited some surprise; and Mr. Bass endeavoured to investigate the cause of this deposit, by examining the form of the neighbouring parts of the island.

'The result of his inquiries and conjectures amounted to this: that as traces of the sea, and of the effects of running waters, were plainly

discernible in many parts of the island, and more particularly in the vicinity of this deposit of chalk and granite, it seemed highly probable that it had been formed by two streams of the tide, which, when the island was yet beneath the surface of the sea, having swept round a large lump of rocks, then met and formed an eddy, where every substance would fall to the bottom. The lump of rocks is now a rocky *Knoll*, which runs tapering from the opposite side of the island toward the chalk. On each side of it is a gap, through which the two streams appear to have passed.' P. 147.

These remarks sufficiently show that our navigators were not in the slightest degree acquainted with mineralogy; and, as we shall find it probable that these islands are rather covered by the sea than emerging from it, the cause of this accumulation, which they have assigned, is not easily admissible. It is not, however, very uncommon. The following description of the petrified remains of trees is truly singular—they were found on the east end of the same island.

Amidst a patch of naked sand, upon one of the highest parts of the island, at not less than 100 feet above the level of the sea, within the limits of a few hundred yards square, were lying scattered about a number of short broken branches of old dead trees, of from one to three inches in diameter, and seemingly of a kind similar to the large brush wood. Amid these broken branches were seen sticking up several white stoney stumps, of sizes ranging between the above diameters, and in height from a foot to a foot and a half. Their peculiar form, together with a number of prongs of their own quality, projecting in different directions from around their base, and entering the ground in the manner of roots, presented themselves to the mind of an observer, with a striking resemblance to the stumps and roots of small trees. These were extremely brittle, the slightest blow with a stick, or with each other, being sufficient to break them short off; and when taken into the hand, many of them broke to pieces with their own weight.

On being broken transversely, it was immediately seen that the internal part was divided into interior or central, exterior or cortical. The exterior part, which in different specimens occupied various proportions of the whole, resembled a fine white and soft grit-stone; but acids being applied, shewed it to be combined with a considerable portion of calcareous matter. The interior or central part was always circular, but seldom found of the same diameter, or of the same composition on any two stumps. In some, the calcareous and sandy matter had taken such entire possession, that every fragment of the wood was completely obliterated; but yet a faint central ring remained. In others was a centre of chalk, beautifully white, that crumbled between the fingers to the finest powder; some consisted of chalk and brown earth, in various quantities, and some others had detained a few frail portions of their woody fibres, the spaces between which were filled up with chalky earth.

It appeared, that when the people of the Sydney-cove first came upon the island, the pieces of dead branches that at this time were lying round the stumps, then formed, with them, the stem and branches of

dead trees complete. But by the time Mr. Bass visited the place, the hands of curiosity, and the frolics of an unruly horse that was saved from the wreck, had reduced them to the state already described.

‘ Mr. Bass had been told from good authority, that when the trees were in a complete state, the diameter of the dead wood of the stem that rose immediately from the stoney part was equal to the diameter of that part; and also that a living leaf was seen upon the uppermost branches of one of them. But he could never learn whether the stoney part of the stem was of an equal height in all the trees.

‘ To ascertain to what depth the petrification had extended, Mr. Bass scratched away the sand from the foot of many of the stumps, and in no instance found it to have proceeded more than three or four inches beneath the surface of the sand, as it then lay; for at that depth the brown and crumbling remains of the root came into view. There were, indeed, parts of the roots which had undergone an alteration similar to that which had taken place in the stems: but these tended to establish the limits of the petrifying power; for they had felt it only either at their first outset from the bottom of the stems, or when, being obstructed in their progress, they had of necessity arched upwards toward the surface.’ P. 149.

On one of these islands, our authors discovered a new quadruped of the opossum tribe, not known to Dr. Shaw at the time of his publication. It is found also on the continent of New Holland. The whole description is too extensive for our limits; yet we shall select a short account of its manners. The flesh is said to resemble pork; but it is more red and coarse.

‘ This animal has not any claim to swiftness of foot, as most men could run it down. Its pace is hobbling or shuffling, something like the awkward gait of a bear. In disposition it is mild and gentle, as becomes a grass-eater; but it bites hard, and is furious when provoked. Mr. Bass never heard its voice but at that time: it was a low cry, between a hissing and a whizzing, which could not be heard at a distance of more than thirty or forty yards. He chased one, and with his hands under his belly suddenly lifted him off the ground without hurting him, and laid him upon his back along his arm, like a child. It made no noise, nor any effort to escape, not even a struggle. Its countenance was placid and undisturbed, and it seemed as contented as if it had been nursed by Mr. Bass from its infancy. He carried the beast upwards of a mile, and often shifted him from arm to arm, sometimes laying him upon his shoulder, all of which he took in good part; until, being obliged to secure his legs while he went into the brush to cut a specimen of a new wood, the creature’s anger arose with the pinching of the twine; he whizzed with all his might, kicked and scratched most furiously, and snapped off a piece from the elbow of Mr. Bass’s jacket with his grass-cutting teeth. Their friendship was here at an end, and the creature remained implacable all the way to the boat, ceasing to kick only when he was exhausted.

‘ This circumstance seemed to indicate, that with kind treatment the wombat might soon be rendered extremely docile, and probably

affectionate; but let his tutor beware of giving him provocation, at least if he should be full grown.

' Besides Furneaux's Islands, the wombat inhabits, as has been seen, the mountains to the westward of Port Jackson. In both these places its habitation is under ground, being admirably formed for burrowing, but to what depth it descends does not seem to be ascertained. According to the account given of it by the natives, the wombat of the mountains is never seen during the day, but lives retired in his hole, feeding only in the night; but that of the islands is seen to feed in all parts of the day. His food is not yet well known; but it seems probable that he varies it, according to the situation in which he may be placed. The stomachs of such as Mr. Bass examined were distended with the coarse wiry grass, and he, as well as others, had seen the animal scratching among the dry ricks of sea-weed thrown up upon the shores, but could never discover what it was in search of. Now the inhabitant of the mountains can have no recourse to the sea-shore for his food, nor can he find there any wiry grass of the islands, but must live upon the food that circumstances present to him.' p. 156.

Nearer Van Diemen's Land were the Swan Islands, which were not granitic; nor is it easy, from the description, to ascertain the nature of the stone which constitutes their boundary. The northern coast of Van Diemen's Land is in about 41° ; the longitude, $147^{\circ} 16' 30''$ east. The country appears fertile; and the entrance to the harbour is particularly described. The land in the neighbourhood was also fertile, though the vegetable mould was not deep; the tints of the flowers were beautifully varied, and their odours highly pleasing—differing, in this respect, from the flowers of the eastern coast of the continent. The water was good, and not scanty, though by no means copious. The rocky shores of the river were of a 'rough iron-stone or a soft grit-stone.' The heavy timbers consisted of different species of gum-tree, more sound at the heart than usual. The black swans were particularly numerous; and their dying song, 'so much celebrated by the poets, resembled the creaking of a rusty sign in a windy day.'

In this part of the island, the conveniences of life were few and inartificial. The hatchets, from their apparent effects, must have been rude and inconvenient; nor was it clear that the natives possessed a canoe; yet, on the western side of the island, canoes must be common, since there is every appearance of an occasional visit to the adjacent islands. It is not easy to reconcile such an ostensible contradiction,—Albatross Island was named from the numerous birds of that kind which were found in it; in which respect it seems to resemble the more inaccessible parts of the Bass Island, off the coast of North Berwick.

'It is worthy of remark' (Mr. Bass says), 'that the northern shore of the strait from Wilson's Promontory, (seen in the whale-boat) to

Western Port resembled the bluff bold shore of an open sea, with a swell rolling in, and a large surf breaking upon it; while the southern shore, or what is the coast of Van Diemen's Land, appeared like the inner shore of a cluster of islands, whose outer parts break off the great weight of the sea. The cause of this is immediately obvious, on recollecting that the swell of the Indian Ocean enters the strait from the southward of the west. The greater part of the southern shore lies in a bight, whose western extreme is Hunter's Isles, and the N. W. cape of Van Diemen's Land. Now as the swell comes from the southward, as well as the westward, it must, after striking upon the north-west part of the southern shore, evidently run on in a direction somewhat diagonal with the two sides of the strait, until it expands itself upon the northern shore, where both swell and surf are found. But to the southward of this diagonal line the swell must quickly take off, and totally disappear, long before it can reach the shore to make a surf. Hence arises the difference.

‘That the swell of the Indian Ocean comes, by far the greater part of the way, from the southward of west, can hardly be doubted, since it is well known that the prevailing winds are from that quarter.’
P. 176.

Our navigators pass round the southern extremity of the island, noticing its bays and projecting headlands.—The following observations, either of colonel Collins or lieutenant Flinders, are peculiarly striking and important.

‘Like that of Terra del Fuego, the extremity of Van Diemen's Land presents a rugged and determined front to the icy regions of the south pole; and, like it, seems once to have extended further south than it does at present. To a very unusual elevation is added an irregularity of form, that justly entitles it to rank among the foremost of the grand and wildly magnificent scenes of nature. It abounds with peaks and ridges, gaps and fissures, that not only disdain the smallest uniformity of figure, but are ever changing shape, as the point of view shifts. Beneath this strange confusion, the western part of this waving coast-line observes a regularity equally remarkable as the wild disorder which prevails above. Lofty ridges of mountain, bounded by tremendous cliffs, project from two to four miles into the sea, at nearly equal distances from each other, with a breadth varying from two miles to two and a half. The bights or bays lying between them are backed by sandy beaches. These vast buttresses appear to be the southern extremities of the mountains of Van Diemen's Land; which, it can hardly be doubted, have once projected into the sea far beyond their present abrupt termination, and have been united with the now detached land, De Witt's Isles.

‘If a corresponding height of similar strata were observable on the islands and on the main, it would amount to a proof that they were originally connected; but this proof was wanting. The same kind of strata appeared in both; but, as far as could be determined in passing hastily by, the necessary correspondence seemed to be deficient. They did not land upon either the islands or the main; but two kinds of rock, one with strata and the other without, were plainly discernible

That without strata formed by far the largest part ; it appeared whitish and shining, was certainly a quartz, and probably a granite. The layers of the rock with strata were of various dark colours, and perfectly distinct.

‘ It was evident, that land so much exposed to the violence of extensive oceans must have undergone some very material changes, by the incessant attrition of their vast waves. Two of the isles, either from this or a more sudden cause, have so far deviated from their centre, that their parallel strata form angles of between sixteen and eighteen degrees in one instance, and in another between twenty-five and thirty-degrees, with the horizontal line. But it is difficult to explain, by the action of water, how a large block of the white stone without strata is caused to overhang an almost perpendicular corner of one of the islands, which beneath that block consists of the dark coloured stone lying in strata.’ p. 179.

To these observations we may be allowed to add a few reflexions. When we consider the situation of New Holland, the granitic bases of its southern islands, and its bold projecting points, we are almost led to regard it as a more important part of the globe than we have, from other circumstances, been inclined to allow. In the Pacific Ocean, indeed, though land is often and extensively generated by coral-banks, some islands seem to have been primæval, yielding, as usual, to the effects of currents and winds. What may have been the original state of New Holland, we cannot now determine ; but that, on the south and west, it was once more extensive, is highly probable. When we examine, with our author’s eye, the three projecting points of Africa, America, and Australasia, we are struck with their similarity : when we add to this the situation of New Zealand, on the south and east ; when we see, on the south-east of each continent, islands of different extent—on one side of Africa, Madagascar, and on that of America, the Malouines ; when we observe, from our author, that the current of the sea is from the west and south ; we cannot avoid the reflexion, that New Holland may once have been an extensive mainland. But what is New Holland now ? we know not. To the west of the strait, or rather to the west of the last port, discovered on the southern coast of this continent by the Lady Nelson, long subsequent to Mr. Bass’s last voyage, in longitude of about 146° to Port Termination, a run of more than 23° of longitude, the coast has not been investigated ; nor can we say how far the ocean has encroached—how near it approaches the indentation from the north, styled the Gulf of Carpentaria, in about 140° of longitude. In their further progress round the island, our voyagers describe the capes and bays, with the appearance of the country ; but we find nothing particularly to interest us. On the eastern side,

they discover a sluggish stream, the Derwent, which of course falls from no great height, and offers nothing very promising. In general, the appearance of Van Diemen's Land is more uniformly favourable than that round Sidney Cove. It has not such rich deep soil in some places, and is not so barren in others. In the whole course, only two rivers were detected in this island—the Derwent, and one at Port Dalrymple, neither seemingly extensive. At Cape St. Vincent, there was the appearance of a third.

We could have wished that the southern coast of New Holland had been examined; but the next expedition recorded in the volume before us was directed to the north. In this excursion, there are some nautical details of importance, but no discovery to detain us: Cape Moreton was found to be an island; and the natives, in general, seemed of superior knowledge and dexterity. The account of the currents and tides along the coast is not of extensive interest, and can only be perused advantageously in the work.

We have nothing to add to our general view of the state of the colony, &c. in the commencement of this article. 'May the annalist' (we now employ our author's own words) 'find, in future, a pleasanter field to travel in, where his steps will not be every moment beset with murderers, robbers, and incendiaries.' At present, the depravity of human nature, in this quarter, affords a gloomy and a painful picture; and we turn, with disgust, from a tale of constantly repeated horror.

To the account of the natives, we have little to add. The baser passions of cruelty and revenge appear to be deeply fixed in their hearts; and civilisation has no effects in subduing it. Benel-long soon returned to savage life; and a boy and a girl, educated among the colonists, left all the comforts of civilisation, to resume their woods and the customs of their parents. Their minds are little cultivated; but those on the coast seem superior, in intellectual faculties, to the inhabitants of the interior. Their constitutions are sound and strong; for they recover from numerous wounds that would soon be fatal to Europeans.

We have already observed, that there are some additions, in this volume, to the stock of natural history; and have noticed the *mænura superba* and the wombat. We find also a well-drawn figure of the mountain eagle, a bird of peculiar strength, which will carry off a kangaroo; but we find no reason for considering it as a distinct species. The Australasian emu, which we shall notice in our review of Mr. Latham's Supplement, is also figured in a *vignette*. To the description of the '*ornithorynchus paradoxus*,' some interesting circumstances are added.

We cannot conclude this volume, without expressing our obligations to colonel Collins for his very distinct and peculiarly accurate accounts of a colony, new in the annals of history, and which perhaps will not afford an example to be followed. We could have wished his abilities a better task; and it is with peculiar regret that we perceive this unpleasant duty is likely to be attended with the professional loss of advantages and of fame, which his seclusion on the confines of the inhabited world must necessarily have occasioned.

ART. VII.—*Travels in Italy, by the late Abbé Barthelemy, Author of the Travels of Anacharsis the Younger; in a Series of Letters written to the celebrated Count Caylus. With an Appendix, containing several Pieces never before published, by the Abbé Winkelman, Father Jacquier, the Abbé Zarillo, and other learned Men. Translated from the French. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.*

THE author of the Travels of Anacharsis requires no peculiar or pointed introduction to the reader: his life, too, has been often detailed; nor need we enlarge on it further, than to add, from the last number of the Appendix to the present volume, that he with difficulty escaped becoming a victim to directorial tyranny. We may add, also, that the Travels of Anacharsis owed their origin to a plan which, perhaps, might have been more generally interesting, but could not have been more instructive, *viz.* imaginary travels through Italy, in the time of Leo X.—the age of the revival of literature, of the discovery of classical treasures; an æra, when the human mind felt a new impulse, when all was spirit and activity. We think, that, from our author's pen, this plan would have assumed a peculiar glow of colouring, which might have rendered it highly interesting and valuable. The end of the late century affords a similar instance of an additional impulse. But what does it offer?—treasons and massacres, treachery and cruelty. It will never afford materials for the work of a benevolent author. Some dæmon, to satiate malice, and glut his mind with pictures of horror, may assume it as the subject of his romance or his satire. Yet, in time, we trust it will fail to obtain credit from its enormities; and scenes, which now no longer shock from their frequent repetition, will be rejected, as idle tales—improbable, perhaps impossible.

The present work is improperly entitled 'Travels.' It consists of the familiar letters of Barthelemy on subjects of

taste and antiquity; sometimes the petty intrigues of an academy.

'The Travels of Barthelemy in Italy cannot properly be regarded as a work of serious study and care. Though replete with historical details and illustrations, there is apparent in them no cold arrangement, and none of that forced and artificial dress, which only serve in common to impose fetters on human genius. They are the letters of a friend to a friend. The ease of style, the boldness of expression, the frankness of communication, the perfect unreserve they sometimes display, and the air of caution and mystery that occasionally appears, give them a degree of interest, that can never belong to works formed by the square and compass of study.

'Hence arises the great difference between these confidential communications, and the detached notes, which have been published in a series of numbers, as fragments of the Travels of Barthelemy in Italy*. These notes exhibit only, if I may be allowed the comparison, a withered and mangled skeleton, of which the disjointed limbs have scarcely connexion with or relation to each other; while the letters I have the honour to publish, possess a body and a shape, and display a plenitude both of life and health.' p. xiv.

The same preface contains the misfortunes of Zarillo, the abbé's friend. He was, unluckily for himself, nominated member and president of the provisional national representation, when the French troops entered Naples. He obeyed the French general; and obeyed also his command to superintend the search of antiquities at Pompeii. Hence he became the object of suspicion to the Neapolitan government, and was obliged to take refuge in France.

These letters are often trifling professions of friendship, containing slight information, with references to more full accounts. We shall select a few remarks of importance, scattered among much lighter matter.

At Lyons, our author saw the copper tables, or rather the table broken in two parts, on which is preserved the speech of Claudius. It is of some consequence, as it shows the mode in which Tacitus composed his work. 'He relates this in a manner very different from the table. He appears satisfied with catching the spirit, and then representing it in his own style.' The deciphering the inscription on the architrave of the Maison Carrée, at Nismes, from the remaining nails, executed by Seguiet, appears to have been suggested by Barthelemy.—These letters, we may remark, are begun in August 1755, and concluded in April 1757; and, independently of the appendix, fill only 220 pages.

* * See these Fragments in a volume of miscellaneous works of the abbé Barthelemy printed for Jansen. I am far from wishing to detract from the merits of this collection: but Mr. de St. Croix, the editor, acknowledges himself in the preface, that the papers in question are merely, what he has called them, *Fragments*.'

Some of the most interesting parts of this volume are the portraits of the literati and antiquaries. We shall copy two of these from his letter dated Florence.

‘ We have also searched to the bottom the cabinet of baron Stosch. I have sent him your impressions, which he received with pleasure, and your book, which he has read with as much earnestness as satisfaction. His cabinet is immense; five and twenty thousand impressions, copies, engraved stones, antiques, medals, manuscripts, maps, drawings. He has plundered Italy, and holds it still in contribution by his correspondents. He has shown me every thing, and given me nothing. I have humbled myself even to intreaties, but they only harden a heart, which, by nature, is not susceptible. I have triumphed over the ferocity of the abbé Boule*, and some other brokers; but I have not been able to gain a victory over him. I am out of spirits, but not quite out of hope, and have just wove a web, in which to trammel him during my absence: perhaps it will afford me the double pleasure, of getting what he covets, and getting it in spite of him.

‘ Gori is the best man in the world: without desire, without jealousy, without money; respectable by his manners, and by his labours; universally esteemed by strangers and his countrymen; looking about for probabilities, and finding them in abundance; searching for protectors, and losing his pains. He has carried his politeness even to the prevention of my wishes; and deferred a journey into the country for a fortnight, that he and I may be better acquainted. An attention so marked, exacted my gratitude; but I assure you, this consideration has not at all influenced my account of him. If you knew him, you would love him; he respects and esteems you as he ought, that is, as a connoisseur. He receives, however, no encouragement here: he wishes to publish three folio volumes, with plates, upon all the diptychs that are known; and thinks of dedicating one volume to the academy, and the others to the patrons who may encourage his work.’ P. 24.

Rome fills our author with ecstasy. It is not a collection: it is a magazine of antique treasures, every part of which is crowded in the most complete and interesting manner. Perhaps this letter might have excited the desires of modern plunderers, who wished to amass collections, and took the ‘ nearest way.’

Some of the pretended paintings from Herculaneum, or Pompeii, are, in the abbé’s opinion, modern fabrications. M. la Condamine and our author seem to have discovered the whole plan of deceit, and the means by which it has been conducted. Some other deceptions—particularly respecting the arch of Constantine and the triumphal arch of Severus—are noticed and detected by the abbé. His perspicacity was

* Our author’s way of softening the hearts of antiquaries seems to have been promising his interest to procure them the honour of being corresponding members of the Academy of Inscriptions, and hinting his determined opposition, if they refused to comply. Rzv.

kept in constant exercise—for the antiquaries of Italy were ready to take advantage of every moment of inattention, and always eager to sell their curiosities, if they could procure a good price; that is, about ten times their real worth. He complains, that, in general, they thwarted him; and that all his acquisitions were obtained from sources of which they knew nothing, and things with which they were unacquainted. The remainder of the letters are short and unsatisfactory, as they relate to works and objects of antiquity, of which the reader can have no idea—and to persons long since numbered with the dead.

The appendix is much more interesting than the letters, as the accounts are more full and satisfactory. The first two numbers contain the origin of our author's excursion; *viz.* the appointment of his patron M. Stainville, as ambassador to the pope, in whose suite M. Barthelemy traveled. They also contain some of the earlier circumstances of the journey, before the letters commence. From the second number we shall select what relates to the Maison Carrée at Nîmes, omitting the note, which contains the abbé's claim to the mode of deciphering the inscription already noticed.

'In reality every thing at Nîmes is an object of admiration to the antiquary. There he finds an amphitheatre, in a more perfect state of preservation than any other that exists: there he finds also that Maison Carrée, long considered as the master-piece of ancient architecture, and which the moderns despair to rival. Yet, in contemplating these monuments, we feel a sort of dejection and pain. The interior, and even the seats of the amphitheatre, are occupied by a rude class of people, who injure it continually, and destroy without mercy what, in the days of Charles Martel, had been spared by the flames. In constructing the new fountain, the workmen, barbarians like, have been seen mutilating statues, breaking pieces of mosaic, and burying under the foundation inscriptions, which, during their labours, chance brought to light. By the care of Mr. de Saint-Priest, some few articles have been saved from the fury of these iconoclasts. His vigilance is great, and extends alike to all the antiquities of Nîmes, but he cannot be always on his guard against the negligence of those to whom he gives directions. Many individuals, on whose veracity we could rely, and who have a taste for antiquities, told us, that they had seen children besieging the Maison Carrée in crowds, and destroying its decorations, to get at the nests which the birds build in them. We observed ourselves marks of these depredations, which were pointed out to us; we saw those beautiful leaves of the acanthus, which form the capitals of the columns, broken by the stones that had been thrown, and we lamented, that so fine a monument of antiquity was not protected from such wanton attacks. Independently of the outrages of man, time also has laid its destructive hand on the Maison Carrée. One of the walls is already, in the middle part of it, out of its level, in consequence probably of the roof with which the edifice

was covered, and the works that were erected within, when the idea was formed of converting it into a church.' p. 224.

The third number, containing an account of the different modes of manufacturing and employing glass, was subjoined to the abbé's fourth letter: it seems to be his own work; and is a valuable collection of what ancient authors have observed on that very curious subject. The fourth number is on Herculaneum; and comprises some remarks, by count Caylus, supposed to be new. These are preceded by a general account of the cabinet at Portici, furnished from the ruins of that desolated city. These remains are, however, now sufficiently known, as they have frequently been described by modern travelers.

The buildings of Herculaneum are said, by the count, to be of Grecian architecture; and, from their regularity, we may believe that they were erected posterior to the Etruscans, who were the inhabitants of this town.

'The number of statues already brought to light is very great, and the little theatre, the gardens and stair-cases of the neighbouring palace of Portici are richly ornamented with them. Pioneers from France are employed to dig up the ruins. Among the statues are six principal consular ones, a Venus Anadyomene, a satyr, a group of scenic masks, and above all the equestrian statue of M. Nonius, the proconsul for all the province, which I conceive extended from Herculaneum to the promontory of Minerva, now called *massa Labrense*. This grand mine then has furnished his majesty with what certainly no other sovereign possesses, *viz.* eight colossal bronze statues, representing personages of the house and family of Augustus. These have been repaired by a statuary. What will principally bring every curious traveller hither, are the beautiful paintings found upon the walls of Herculaneum, sawn out and disposed in as many wooden cases, and which cover from top to bottom four rooms in Portici with pictures that are beyond measure excellent. Among these may be seen fifty-three pieces in as complete a state of preservation, as if they had been painted but a few years, and from which it appears, that the ancients had every knowledge of perspective, together with that justness of light and shade, till very lately unknown to moderns. The design is always extremely correct, whether it be Greek or Roman. There is an Egyptian sacrifice which is without price. Nothing of the Etruscan is to be seen in it. Utensils and household vessels are without number, consisting of beautiful tripods, ewers, little pitchers, pots, bells, sconces, curule-chairs, &c. to say nothing of altars, shields, medals and inscriptions to a vast amount. Amongst the last are principally to be noted two *plebisciti*, but they are broken and defaced, and a decree of the gymnasiarch on the athletic games. Whoever shall apply himself to the illustration of all these, will have a great deal to do, if he undertake to supply the deficiencies. There are also two *bonestæ missiones* [a regular discharge of a soldier from the service] in high preservation. Also an oven with a metal vase in it full of burnt corn, and

a small loaf of bread burned up and indurated. This would lead us to suppose, that Herculaneum was rather consumed by fire, as Pliny says, 'than destroyed by an earthquake.' p. 250.

The remarks on the paintings of Herculaneum, by a correspondent of count Caylus, are peculiarly just. He combats, with great propriety, the exaggerated accounts of the extraordinary merits of the ancient paintings found in Herculaneum (in which it is contended, by their admirers, that the Roman painters were well acquainted with perspective, excelled Raphael in design, and Titian in colouring) by showing that Herculaneum was a small town belonging to a province not famous for its riches or commerce. The paintings, too, are on the wall, and the artist must have been on the spot—circumstances which would preclude the exertions of a Zeuxis or a Polygnotus. The author expressly says, that the engravings, published even by authority, are unfaithful. The faults in the perspective are corrected; and certain effects of light are given, with which the ancients were unacquainted.

From the remarks of Du Theil, preserved in this miscellaneous number of the appendix, it is rendered probable that Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed only in 471. The number of antiquities discovered is increased four-fold since the visit of Barthelemy, as we find from the second letter of Zarillo, designed to supply the deficiency, by a detail of what has since been discovered. We shall transcribe a part of the passage.

' In page 80, after speaking of certain jewels of gold, he mentions some bracelets. If we are to understand bracelets of granite, coral or other substances with little gold clasps, he is in the right; otherwise, it is an error of my respected friend. There were found neither in the ruins of Herculaneum nor of Pompeii any bracelets of a certain size, nor any entirely of gold, except those which are *now in the National Museum of France*, and which were discovered in the remains of Pompeii, by a search made at the expense of the French republic, under my direction, and by order of Championnet, general in chief of the army of Italy. This discovery was made in a shop in the principal street of that town; where were also found the skeletons of four unfortunate ladies, who probably took refuge there to avoid the lava and shower of stones that covered Pompeii. They had with them their jewels, their bracelets, their pendants for the ears, their rings, and what little money they possessed in gold, silver and copper. The same shop contained other antiquities, which *have been sent to the museum in France*.

" A great number of brass and silver medals (says Barthelemy, page 82), but nothing rare; one or two gold medals, common:" at that time he was right; they had not then found any others, nor had they dug up more than a small part of the city of Herculaneum, as he says; but a short time after a number of extremely curious and scarce

medals were discovered. In gold, besides those of Vitellius, Otho and Galba, which are greatly esteemed, it will suffice to mention, among those of the twelve Cæsars, the medallion of Augustus, till lately imited, but which we have published for the first time in the preface to the second volume of the Antiquities of Herculaneum, with its form, weight, figure and legend. As to the copper medals of the first form, besides some representing the allocutions of Galba, and others with the figures and initial letter XL. R. *Quadragesimæ Remissæ*, there was one discovered with the words *Hispania Clunia Sulpitia*, which is much more scarce than the rest. On the medals of Nero are found allocutions, congiaries made by the emperor, and a representation of the port of Ostia. On the Vespasian you read *ROMA RESURGES* and *ADSEPTORI LIBERTATIS PUBLICÆ*; on the Titus too several congiaries are seen. As these medals have all been described, and there are duplicates of them, I applied to the Museum of Herculaneum, and obtained, with the king's leave, these duplicates to form a supplement to a second set for the Farnesian Museum at Capo di Monte, the medal of Galba which has the words *Hispania Clunia Sulpitia* excepted, and another of Augustus of the first form, with the heads of Caius and Lucius on the reverse, which is a very scarce one. P. 284.

The fifth number contains the literary life of Mazzochi, which is very interesting; and the sixth is an account of the abbé Barthelemy's interview with Baiardi. Baiardi may be esteemed a monster of erudition. Every occurrence of antiquity was familiar to him; and, when ordered by the Neapolitan court to give some general introduction of the remains of Herculaneum to public notice, after two years, he produced two quarto volumes. He had not, however, yet arrived at the city; but was occupied in the measures of different nations. In the fifth and sixth volumes, he discussed the geographical situation of the different cities of Hercules; but we believe he had not arrived at the antiquities he was to introduce, at the close of the seventh volume. They might, perhaps, have occurred in the twenty-seventh.

‘ It is easily seen that researches like these would soon bring the author to the end even of a dozen volumes; unfortunately he was desired to stop in his glorious career; and some time after he returned to Rome, where I went to see him. I asked him if he had finished his Preface: he answered, that he had suspended it for a while, and that, to divert himself in the mean time, he was employed in an abridgment of universal history, which he should comprise in twelve volumes duodecimo, and that he should begin with the solution of a very important problem to history and astronomy, which was the fixing the point of the heavens in which God placed the sun at the creation of the world. He had just discovered this point, and marked it out to me upon the celestial globe. .

‘ I have perhaps already been too diffuse upon this signor Baiardi; but as I write for myself only, or at best but for a few friends, I wish to give a sketch of his character, and recount to myself the first visit that

I made him at Naples. I found him in a large hall; a violent cold kept him on a sofa, the appearance of which was a proof of the length of its services. He was dressed in such antique garments, that one might fairly have taken them for the spoils of some ancient inhabitant of Herculaneum. He was at work with his amanuensis. I begged him to proceed, and I sat me down on the foot of the sofa. Certain monks of Calabria had been consulting him on an heresy that begun to spread in their neighbourhood. They had just learned, that one Copernicus had maintained, that the earth moved round the sun. "What then was to become of that passage in Scripture, which declared the earth immovable, and of that Joshua, who made the sun to stand still? to say nothing of the testimony of our senses, or how we were to keep ourselves from falling, if our heads all night long were downwards?" The prelate answered diffusely and learnedly to all these questions, rescued the honour of the holy books, pointed out the laws of gravity, opposed the testimony of the senses, and concluded by advising the monks not to trouble the ashes of Copernicus which had been so long cold, but to sleep on themselves in the same tranquillity they had hitherto enjoyed.' P. 300.

The seventh number is very curious and entertaining, in respect to the fabrication of pretended antiques. We are sorry that we have not room for the whole: a part would be useless. The eighth number is equally curious: it consists of a letter from count Rezzonico to count Caylus, dated 1756, and contains the plan of a most erudite and elaborate disquisition 'upon the country, the writings, and the editors, of Pliny the elder and Pliny the younger.' We do not recollect that it was ever published.

The ninth number comprises the dissertation on the antiquities of Rome, by the abbé Barthelemy, from the Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions. It would be improper to enlarge our article by examining an essay so long since published; but we think it more comprehensive, and more generally instructive, than all the other parts of the volume. From its being so closely compacted, an abridgement would be very difficult; and many of the subjects are noticed in the letters.

The tenth number relates to the measure of the Coliseum, by P. Jacquier, the commentator on Newton. The eleventh is on the original idea which suggested the plan of the Travels of Anacharsis, already mentioned. The supplement to the Memoirs of Barthelemy is subjoined. We shall copy some traits; and, when we reflect on these and similar events, our readers will no longer want an excuse for the horrors we feel, and have expressed, on the slightest mention of the revolution and its victims.

'The abbé Barthelemy had been arrested by the government. Madame de Choiseul learning this, sent immediately her confidential

agent, Mr. Degond, to the representative Courtois, intreating him to take the necessary steps to obtain the liberation of the author of *Anacharsis*.

' The representative hastened to the committee of general safety, and as he entered the hall the first person he met was the ex-marchioness of Aub. . . . who, her long train sweeping the ground, accosted him, and said, "I come, sir, on the part of the duchess of Choiseul, to solicit the release of the abbé Barthelemy."

' A dozen spies, who heard her, smiled: barbarians! what a smile, and at what a period!

' The representative, struck with the danger in which the imprudence of this lady might involve her, replied with affected bluntness, that he knew no duchesses; and he took her by the arm and made her be seated.

' Leaving her there, he went to the committee, and made a motion, that the abbé Barthelemy be set at liberty. Chabot and Bazire were the first who relented. The strongest opposition proceeded from the author of "*Agis*," who alleged, that the prisoner had written the *Travels of Anacharsis in Greece*, a work that smelled of aristocracy. The debate on the subject lasted a complete hour; but at length, about half after two, Courtois carried his motion. He returned to the ex-marchioness, and uttered eagerly these words of consolation: "Fly," says he, "tell madame de Choiseul, that the release of the abbé Barthelemy is obtained."

' The generous academician was not insensible to the conduct of the representative: the moment he was at liberty, he hastened to his house, and not finding him at home, left for him the following note:

"Friday, 7 September.

"Citizen Barthelemy, keeper of the cabinet of medals, penetrated with the kindness of citizen Courtois, has had the honour of calling at his house, to express his grateful sense of the obligation. He will only observe, that the remembrance of so flattering and important a benefit will ever be deeply engraven on his mind, and still more deeply on his heart."

' In answer to this letter, the representative addressed to Barthelemy the following quatrain:

' De la liste de mort si ton nom fut rayé,
Si je savai tes jours, philosophe sublime!
Tu vis; d'un tel bienfait ne suis-je pas payé?
A mon pays trompé j'évite encore un crime.

' If, from the deadly scroll, O sage sublime,
To rase thy name has been my happy task;
Thou liv'st, my country too is snatch'd from crime:
What meed more rich or ample could I ask?

' These lines have been engraved on a small monument, erected in the Vosges in honour of Barthelemy.

After his release, Barthelemy was in continual apprehension for his liberator. On the anniversary of the festival in honour of the Supreme Being, Courtois recited to him these verses :

‘ Le Dieu du ciel et de la terre
Eut mon hommage en tous les temps ;
S’il est le Dieu de Robespierre
Je lui refuse mon encens.

‘ The God who made the heavens and earth,
Were he the God of Robespierre,
Though I’ve rever’d him from my birth,
No longer should my soul revere.

“ Heavens !” exclaimed Barthelemy, alarmed, “ how wretched should I be to learn, that for a few unfortunate rhymes you were led to the scaffold ! I should then have lived too long.” P. 405.

We shall add no more. We have already, perhaps, exceeded the bounds due to the volume: we wish not to trespass on those of decency.

ART. VIII.—*Travels in Switzerland, and in the Country of the Grisons: in a Series of Letters to William Melmoth, Esq. from William Coxe, M. A. F. R. S. F. A. S. &c. With an Historical Sketch and Notes on the late Revolution. The Fourth Edition. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.*

THOSE who have only heard of Switzerland have learned to admire the happy freedom of its sequestered vales, the pastoral simplicity of its mild, but not rude, inhabitants, the cheerfulness with which they eat the bread procured by their own labour, without a desire for greater luxuries than their own mountains—where sometimes Nature has niggardly denied or reluctantly scattered a few fertile spots—can supply. The Swiss peasant returns from a life of servitude, with a moderate pittance, to spend it in his native country ; nor will the storms, the avalanches, with a scanty fare, disgust him, when joined with the captivating simplicity of his rural life, and the simple melody of the *ranz des vaches*. Too low for envy, too humble and too poor to excite contention or an avaricious desire of conquest, Switzerland was long considered as exempt from the storms which shook kingdoms and social order from their foundations. It was the retreat provided for disappointed ambition, for moderate circumstances, and for the worn-out adventurer. But it has, at length, partaken of those convulsions which have

been so fatal in Europe; and the direst misfortune which can happen to a state has overtaken it—**BONAPARTE IS BECOME ITS PROTECTOR!**

It is fair to add, that the imposing simplicity of the former picture is not true of every part of this country. The aristocratical cantons could not boast of the general equality of the rest; and real or fancied oppression excited complaints, and led to a mode of conduct disproportioned to the evil. These little grievances were exaggerated by the partisans of France; and the jealousy or the fear of the house of Austria, the smarting of former wounds, added to the force of these insidious representations. We know the result:—but let us attend to our author.

Mr. Coxe's work was examined in the forty-seventh and sixty-eighth volumes of our journal; and the fourth edition now claims our notice, in consequence of the introductory sketch, which traces the progress of the revolution, or rather the conquest, of Switzerland, by France. After that period, we know it still preserved the shadow at least of independence; but even the shade is now no more. In this sketch, our author speaks with a warm affection for the country which has been the object of his inquiries; but, we suspect, with too great a predilection for the aristocratical cantons. The weakness, the timidity, and the indecision, of the chief of these was one great source of the first triumph of France: their unpopularity, from whatever cause, assisted the French interest. The other cantons, however, sent numerous veterans to the army; and, had all been cordially united, France might have had reason to repent of the attempt. We must now be more particular. The author commences in the following very impressive manner.

‘ With a heart full of sorrow and regret, I deliver to the public this new edition of a work, written when Switzerland was in a state of freedom.

‘ I entered Switzerland without prepossession or prejudice, and after four successive tours at different periods of my life, in which I repeatedly traversed almost every part of the country, the result of my deliberate observations was a full conviction, that the governments, in general, were mild and equitable, and the great mass of people free and happy. A few instances of narrow policy, and some abuses in the administration of justice, particularly in the democratic states, did not escape my notice, and I censured them with freedom and impartiality. Still, however, a full conviction remained, that the good predominated over the evil; and the general welfare was visible in the population, husbandry, and industry of the natives: the country abounded with good inns and roads, contained many flourishing towns and villages, and exhibited every appearance of public prosper-

city and private happiness. This opinion was also the universal sentiment of all writers, until the commencement of the French revolution.' Vol. i. p. v.

The chief cause of the revolution is stated to have been the weakness and indecision natural to a federal union of estates, differing in interests, and jealous of each other; in short, natural to a union without mutual confidence. Another cause was the spirit of innovation and irreligion, by which France undermined the sentiments of every nation before she engaged in open war. To this may be added the disaffection, in consequence of the exclusive possession of offices, restrictions of commerce, &c.—the teasings of a gnat, for which the amputation of a limb is not necessary; the national antipathy, as we have mentioned, to the houses of Austria and Savoy; with the ascendancy which France had obtained from a long and intimate connexion, as well as a mutual exchange, according to their respective circumstances, of good offices. Yet no severer affront could be offered to a democratic Swiss, than to be called a Frenchman.

‘ The Directory laid the plan of subjugation with great address, and unfortunately carried it into execution with little opposition. They purposed to divide the members of the Helvetic confederacy by fomenting commotions, and by occupying the attention of the respective states to prevent them from resisting in one compact and united body. They then determined to turn their whole force against the canton of Bern, on the conquest or submission of which the reduction of all Switzerland depended; thus verifying the plan of external policy which republican France, like Rome, has uniformly adopted, of conquering all nations by attacking them singly.’

‘ As early as 1796, they demanded from the Swiss states the dismissal of Mallet du Pan and the French emigrants. The compliance with this mandate, in opposition to the humane and spirited remonstrances of the British minister, Mr. Wickham, was the first fatal act of submission: it may be considered as a virtual renunciation of their independence, and announced the subsequent imbecility of their counsels.

‘ Dreading the effect of these remonstrances, and eager to counteract the influence of England, they preceded their hostilities, in 1797, by requiring Bern, and the other Helvetic cantons, if necessary, to give directions for Mr. Wickham's immediate departure from Switzerland; his sole object being to “excite plots against the internal and external security of the French republic.” The British minister, who foresaw the acquiescence of the Bernese government, withdrew to Frankfort on a leave of absence, and voluntarily announced the termination of his embassy, in a dignified note addressed to the rulers of Bern. Thus the alliance of England, who alone withstood the encroaching spirit of France, and was inclined to render every assistance in her power, was withdrawn, and Switzerland left to her fate.

'The directory first recommended, as the price of their forbearance, or rather prescribed to each of the Swiss states, the abolition of their respective governments, and the establishment of a provisional regency, until a constitution should be formed on the basis of universal suffrage and general eligibility.

'This plan was announced in a declamatory letter, full of revolutionary jargon, by Ochs, grand tribune and envoy from Basle. He urged the government of Basle to declare by a formal decree the emancipation of their subjects, the convocation of primary assemblies for the choice of representatives to arrange a new constitution, and the establishment of provisional committees.' Vol. i. p. xvi.

In what the intrigues of Mr. Wickham, or rather, as 'has been said, of Mr. Pitt, consisted, has not been explained. It is the empty jargon of republicans, thwarted in the extent of their vast designs—the cant of disappointed ambition. In this instance, however, they were not disappointed; but we may add, that, if British influence or British gold could have preserved the independence of Switzerland, it would have been well employed. That they accelerated its fate, is highly improbable.

The approach of danger animated the Swiss, and the solemn oath of confederacy was renewed; but it was undermined at the moment of renewal; and the States, disaffected to the federal union, gradually dropped off. Berne stood firm, and was at the head of the shattered remains of a power once truly formidable.

The French began with reviving a remote claim to the Pays de Vaud; and the rulers of Berne employed themselves in refuting it, trusting to the efforts of their pen, instead of their sword. In the midst of this discussion, their enemies took possession of the country, or, in their own language, protected it.

'During these transactions, the government of Bern exhibited a strange mixture of spirit and imbecility, timidity and rashness: levies of troops were one moment ordered, and the next countermanded; conciliatory measures were counteracted by threats, and preparations for resistance embarrassed by attempts at negotiation.

'This fluctuation of counsels was derived from the disunion which prevailed among the members of the government, the influence of the French party, and, above all, from the representations of the government of Zurich. The magistrates of that canton, which was second in population and power in the Swiss confederacy, urged the necessity of recurring to negotiation, and, by their connection with the moderate party of Bern, baffled her counsels, and weakened her efforts. In vain the avoyer Steiguer, general d'Erlach, and a few exalted patriots, attempted to animate the government to a sense of danger, and convince them that their only security consisted in arms. Their remonstrances had no permanent effect; and if a temporary

spirit was excited, it soon subsided, and was followed by humiliating concessions.

‘ The party, which formed a large majority in the councils, vainly hoped to conciliate France by partially adopting the plans of reform suggested by the agents of the Directory. Even while they meditated resistance to the invasion of the Pays de Vaud, and sent a spirited remonstrance to the French republic; while they quelled a mutiny of the regiment stationed at Aarberg; while they instituted a committee of police, to check the progress of the revolutionary doctrines, and arrested several leaders of sedition, they weakened the ancient fabric of their venerable constitution: the sovereign council, in contradiction to the general wishes of the people, convened fifty delegates, to give advice in the present emergency, and assist in new-modelling the form of government.’ Vol. i. p. xxix.

From this fluctuation of active measures and negotiation, it is not difficult to see why the country was lost. There were, however, two periods when it might have been saved. At this time, when a dictatorship was proposed, but prevented by jealousy, as soon as it was known who were designed for that high office; and at another time, when the troops were actually assembled under general d'Erlach, a veteran of acknowledged reputation.

At this last period, the advanced forces of Berne, Friburg, and Soleure, amounted to 25,000 men, in the strongest position of that almost inaccessible country; with a force behind nearly incalculable, as it consisted of hearts as well as hands—the veteran bands of a hardy race of mountaineers. In this interval, however, the *finesse* of France prevailed. Action was alternated with negotiation; emissaries, in the camp, hinted at disaffection in the officers, and suggested to the soldiers that they were betrayed. The army gradually melted away; and d'Erlach afterwards fought with a weakened force, and with diminished exertions of those who remained.

‘ Situated in the centre of the army, Erlach was surprised at the suddenness of this attack, and kept in check by a feint of general Schawembourg. On receiving information that Friburg and Soleure had surrendered, to avoid being flanked, he retreated towards the capital, concentrated his forces, and occupied a strong line, extending from Frauenbrunnen to the north, on the high road between Bern and Soleure, and passing through the intermediate posts of Laupen, Gummnen, Aarberg, Friesenberg, and Schepfen, to Neunec on the west, between Friburg and Bern. This retreat before a foreign army, unexampled in the annals of Switzerland, increased the fury of the soldiers, and heightened their distrust in their officers. The militia of Arau indignantly quitted the army, and their example was followed by numbers in the right wing, under the command of general Buren. The troops of the central division, who had repulsed several attacks of the enemy, retreated in sullen despair: the surprise and slaughter of

the battalion at Lengnau, the capture of Soloure and Friburg without resistance, and the order for an instant retreat, were considered as proofs of treachery; and this spirit of suspicion was inflamed by printed letters circulated by the French agents, asserting that the Swiss were betrayed by their officers. They rose in a body at Nidau, and were with difficulty prevented from assassinating colonel de Cross: they no longer listened to the orders of their leaders; but uttered the most direful imprecations against their commander. The left wing alone retaining some degree of subordination, though gloomy and desponding, occupied the strong posts of Neunec, Laupen, and Gummehen. Vol. i. p. l.

The Bernese, still inclined to conciliating measures, complied, in some degree, with the commands of their assuming dictators, and elected new magistrates.

‘Hoping to conciliate the French general, the new magistrates hastened to notify this change in the government, and offered to disband their troops, provided the French would not quit the posts they then occupied. But Brune, apprised of the confusion and anarchy which prevailed in the city and army, rejected this offer, and required that Bern should admit a French garrison. Even the members of the revolutionary government did not venture to brave the fury of the people, by surrendering the capital to the French commanders, whose perfidy they now detected, and issued orders for a general attack. At the close of this fatal day, the venerable avoyer Steiguer solemnly deposed the insignia of his office, and, accompanied by his brother and family, hastened to Frauenbrunnen, where he joined general d'Erlach.

‘The army of Bern now destined to make a final effort for expiring liberty, was reduced to a melancholy state of insubordination and weakness; it consisted of only 14,000 men, enraged against their officers, and disunited among themselves; while the contingents stood aloof, and refused to act with so disorganised a body. With this small number of disaffected troops, Erlach, well aware of his desperate situation, prepared to encounter 40,000 veterans, flushed with conquest, and in a high state of discipline. In reply to Danican, who made some observations on the conduct of Brune, he exclaimed, “I expect nothing but dishonour or death.” And in the morning of the conflict, he said to his aid-de-camp, “I have seen the sun rise, but shall never see it set;” his presence of mind, however, did not forsake him; he made the most skillful dispositions, and performed the part of a general and a soldier.’ Vol. i. p. liii.

‘The capture of Bern was preceded by the total defeat of the main body, under general d'Erlach, who, with less than 7000 men, withstood the repeated assaults of general Schawembourg, at the head of 18,000. Under him the avoyer Steiguer fought in the ranks, and animated the troops, by his exhortations and example, to deeds of valour not surpassed by their heroic ancestors. The post of Frauenbrunnen being forced, Erlach rallied his men, and was repeatedly compelled to yield to superior numbers: being driven from one position,

he took another; after four desperate engagements, he resisted a fifth assault under the walls of Bern, and did not finally abandon the contest till his little army had lost 2000 men, and the troops of Brune and Schawembourg were on the point of uniting, while the capital was unprepared to withstand a siege. Bern surrendered to the first summons of general Brune, and a tree of liberty was planted in his presence. Within the city the fury of the populace was controlled by the presence of an armed force; but the broken remains of the retreating army committed the most horrid excesses, assassinated several officers, and the two adjutant-generals Krousaz and Gumoens.

Through these frantic hordes of disbanded soldiery, Steiguer and Erlach were hastening towards the mountains of Hasli and Oberland, where the borders of the lake of Thun offer an impregnable retreat, and whither had been conveyed large quantities of arms and ammunition, thirty pieces of artillery, and a considerable treasure. The venerable avoyer, in disguise, and led by a peasant, passed unknown through crowds of his enraged countrymen, and along roads infested with the light troops of the enemy, and reached the lake of Thun, after a walk of five leagues; reposing himself for a short time on the trunk of a tree, he crossed Mount Brunig into the canton of Unterwalden, and found a refuge at Bregenz, in the Austrian territories.

Erlach, after miraculously escaping from the repeated assaults of the enemy, was hastening towards the mountains of Oberland, undaunted with defeat, and inspired with hopes of collecting his shattered forces, to make another effort. Recognised by some straggling soldiers near Musingen, upon the high road between Bern and Thun, he was instantly seized, bound, and placed in a cart, with an intention of conveying him to the capital; but another desperate band assaulted him, and, amidst reproaches and execrations, massacred him with their bayonets and hatchets.

The French generals acknowledge that the Swiss fought with unparalleled bravery, and that the subjection of Bern was the consequence of a most bloody conflict, in which the militia, levied in a mass, and without experience, gave the strongest proofs of courage and despair. "Many of those brave people," said the French officer who delivered the Swiss standards to the Directory, "without any arms but scythes and clubs, placing themselves at the mouths of the cannon, were mowed down with grape shot; and rejected the quarter which we offered them from humanity."

It would be endless to detail the numerous instances of magnanimity and heroism displayed by these brave defenders of their expiring liberty; but I cannot omit one glorious effort, which surpasses the memorable sacrifice of the Spartans at Thermopylæ. Eight hundred youths devoted themselves to death: overpowered by numbers, they refused quarter; seven who escaped the first carriage disdained to survive their brothers in arms, and, rushing into the ranks of the enemy, perished under the ruins of their country. In these bloody conflicts not only the men displayed unparalleled bravery, but even women rushed into the heat of the battle, threw themselves on the cannon of the enemy, and clung to the wheels to prevent them from advancing."

We have dwelt on the scene with a tender melancholy. These last acts of heroism deserved a better fate; but a kingdom divided against itself cannot possibly stand. May such never be the fate of England; and, should we ever be doomed to draw the sword on English ground, let the scabbard be at once thrown away.

We must not conceal that the conduct of d'Erlach has been the subject of censure, and differently explained. Our author's narrative, however, bears every internal mark of consistency and truth; nor are his opportunities of information scanty or suspicious. We adduce the facts, nevertheless, without implicating ourselves in defence of their veracity, and without a wish, on the other hand, to excite any distrust respecting their accuracy.

The old map is retained; and, from being printed on thick paper, is peculiarly inconvenient, by its bulk and size. An index map, according to the new division, is added; but this division, Mr. Coxe tells us, was abdicated by the new constitution of 1801. It is not, therefore, particularly useful, unless, as is not unlikely, it be again resorted to. We are happy to be able to state, that the absurd folly of the new measures and the new calendar is on its wane. A general revolution in these respects is, probably, not very distant.

ART. IX.—*Supplement to the General Synopsis of Birds.* 4to.

1l. 4s. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1784.

ART. X.—*Supplement II. to the General Synopsis of Birds.*

4to. 2l. 7s. 6d. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1801.

ART. XI.—*Supplementum Indicis Ornithologici, sive Systematis Ornithologiæ, Studio et Operâ Joannis Latham.* 4to.

1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1801.

AS some years have elapsed since Mr. Latham's labours engaged our attention, we must premise a short history of his progressive publications. The first volume of the *Synopsis of Birds* appeared in 1781, and was noticed in our fifty-fourth volume. The second followed in about two years, and occurred in our fifty-seventh volume: the third, at the end of nearly the same period, and was examined in our sixtieth volume. The first Supplement, mentioned among the titles, unaccountably escaped our notice; but the '*Index Ornithologicus*,' in two volumes, quarto, we announced in the second volume of our new arrangement.

Though the first Supplement be no longer a novelty, and need not detain us, yet we may, on account of the omission just specified, briefly notice some parts of the preface, as it explains the conduct of the author, and the object of the Latin index. In order to form this supplemental volume, with which he designed to have closed the Synopsis, every former species was herein revised, and what errors might have occurred were corrected, what deficiencies were observable, supplied. Mr. Latham apologises for omitting the general and specific definitions, as they would have swelled the bulk of the volume, and should, in his opinion, be confined to a separate publication. This he soon afterwards executed in the 'Index,' which contains, not only the generic and trivial names, but the definitions, and a very accurate collection of synonyms. It is, indeed, a most valuable scientific work, and includes the substance of this first Supplement. The number of known species was, at this time, increased by the addition of more than two thousand, to the nine hundred described by Linnæus. A list of the birds of Great-Britain, with some useful hints in the form of notes, is subjoined.

To the second Supplement, which is accompanied by a Supplement to the Index, we now proceed. No preface is prefixed to either; and, of course, we know not whether Mr. Latham's health or inclination will enable him to pursue the work—for it still grows under his hands. The new species, in *this* Supplement, exceed three hundred; and numerous additions and corrections occur in the former articles: so that, since the year 1790, our new ornithological discoveries exceed one third of the number known previous to the period of Linnæus.

In the second Supplement, besides an account of the new species, the additions are considerable. Mr. Latham seems to have suffered no naturalist of credit to have escaped his inquiries. His obligations to Vaillant, and Daudin are numerous. The *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, and that valuable collection in our own language, *The Naturalist's Miscellany*, have shared much of his attention; nor, indeed, do we recollect any writer or traveler of credit who has been overlooked. We shall select a few specimens of our author's labours, both from the additions and the new species. What is remarked under the description of the ash-coloured or Angola vulture is of some consequence.

'This species is generally seen in pairs, but does not unite in large flocks, like many of the vultures; indeed ten or twelve are often seen together about one carcase, but they have been brought there by common attraction, allured thereto by the smell, which though unperceivable to human sensation, attracts their infinitely more delicate or-

gans at inconceivable distances. Said to build among the rocks, laying four eggs; are most frequent among the sterile lands of Karow and Camdeboo; also in the country of Hottiqua, though more rare; the same in respect to the neighbourhood of the Cape: is capable of being made tame; and there are few of the hordes in which one does not see a pair; and the natives seemed pleased with their company, as they served to free them from every stinking thing which might otherwise annoy them. This natural tameness occasions their being easy to shoot at, though, unless with a large ball, they are not easily killed. Their food seems general, all manner of carrion. Lizards, snakes, frogs, and even the excrements of beasts do not escape them.

This seems to be the *v. de Norvege* of Buffon, and in course his *petit vautour*, as also the *sacré d'Egypte* of the same author, to which I may add, the probability of its proving the Angola vulture of Pennant, and the *rachamab* of Bruce, which is common near Cairo, and if it should not prove likewise a variety of the *v. de Malibe*, it at least corresponds with it in the shape of the bill, in which part the whole of the last-mentioned differ from other vultures. When, however, the decision of the vulture genus into real species may take place, is not for us to determine; the variety among individuals, from different periods of life, as well as the different appearances of those in a state of confinement, to what the plumage has when at large, cannot fail to create no small difficulty; added to that, very few travellers are naturalists in a sufficient degree to discriminate one part of nature from another; besides, the subjects in question being mostly extra-European, we cannot wonder at being so long in the dark: let us however attempt all we can, with the hopes of some future day being able to arrive at greater precision; nor let any writer be ashamed of correcting his mistakes the moment he may be possessed of better information.

Bruce observed these birds near Cairo in abundance, where it is a great breach of the police to kill one of them. According to Dr. Shaw, it is a very tame species; and the bashaw is said daily to distribute two bullocks among them, being esteemed sacred birds. p. 5.

The additions to the genus *vulture* are five only; to that of *falco*, forty-five; but, among these, there are two varieties of former species. To the owl, fourteen new species are added, one of which is apparently a variety.

Of the pies, the genus *lanius* (the shrike) is enriched with sixteen new species; but none of these offer any observation peculiarly interesting. Of the Tabuan parrot, we find two varieties. Australasia has greatly augmented this genus.

After the parrot, a new genus occurs, not found in the 'Index'—viz. the channel-bill. It forms a connecting link between the parrots and the horn-bills. One single species alone occurs; and we shall select the whole which relates to it.

The size of this bird is nearly that of a crow, and the total length is twenty-seven inches; the bill from the gape to the point three

inches and an half, or rather more; it is very stout at its base, and curved its whole length; the upper mandible hooked at the point; the upper part is narrow, ridged, and the sides are channelled; at the base, close to the setting on of the feathers, the nostrils are placed; these are round, and the edges of them surrounded with a naked red skin, which continues on each side, between them and the eye, and also surrounds the eye itself, but the bare parts are most considerable above the eye: the tongue is three-fourths the length of the bill, thick at the base, from thence to the end flat and cartilaginous, and bifid at the end: the head and neck are of an ash coloured grey; the under parts of the body the same, but paler: back and wings blueish ash colour; the end of each feather tipped with black: the quills are much the same, but darker; and the inner webs, as they approach the base, are very pale. The first quill feather is shorter by three inches and three-fourths than the second, and the second full an inch shorter than the third, which is the longest of all; and the wings when closed, cover full three-fourths of the tail. The tail itself is cuneiform, and consists of ten feathers, of a deep ash colour; the two middle feathers are eleven inches long; the outer ones only seven inches and three quarters. Near the end of all the feathers is a bar of black, which takes up most space in the middle ones; the very tips of all for about an inch, are white; the margins of the inner webs, from the middle to the base, in all but the two middle feathers, are barred black and white; the feathers over the thighs, and the vent and under tail coverts, barred with the same, but paler: the legs are short, measuring from the heel to the toe joint only two inches; the toes of the same length, and placed two before and two behind, as in the toucan; their colour is blueish black.

'This bird inhabits New Holland, where it is called goe-re-e-gang; it is not very common, and first appears about Port Jackson in October; is seldom seen unless mornings and evenings, sometimes seven or eight together, but oftener in pairs: both on the wing, and when perched, they make a strange loud screaming noise, not unlike that made by a common cock and hen, when they perceive a hawk or any other bird of prey hovering over them. They probably come to this part of New South Wales only to breed, after which they depart elsewhere in January, but where is not ascertained. In the crops and gizzards of several, were found the seeds of the red-gum and peppermint trees, which is believed to be their principal food, and supposed to swallow them all whole, as the pericarpium or capsule has been found in the stomach; exuviae of some beetles have also been found, but not in quantity. The tail, which is not far short of the length of the body, is sometimes displayed like a fan, and gives it on flight, or when sitting, a very majestic appearance. The natives know very little of its habits, haunts, &c. however, they consider its appearance as an indication of wind and blowing weather, and that its frightful scream is through fear, as it is not a bird of very active or quick flight. The pupil of the eye appears uncommonly clear. It cannot easily be tamed, for Mr. White observes, that he kept a wounded one two days alive, though he could get it to eat nothing, but bit every thing that approached it very severely.' P. 96.

The crows are greatly increased in number, chiefly from the discoveries of the Pacific Ocean; and we find equally numerous additions to the former accounts. The new species, under the genera *coracias*, *oriola*, and *gracula*, are not numerous or important; but there are some new observations on those already known.

The cuckoos from New Holland and the Cape of Good-Hope are much multiplied. The account of the bee-cuckoo of Bruce, the Abyssinian cuckoo, is the most curious. The fan-tailed cuckoo is the handsomest of the tribe.

We shall pass over many less-important genera, to which little is added, to notice the *merops*. Of this genus, the new species amount to thirteen, almost wholly from Australasia. The new species of *certhia* (creepers) are almost exclusively from New Holland—Africa furnishing only three or four. Of the little humming-birds we have merely three new species; but the following account of two young ones brought to England, is too curious to be omitted.

‘ We have before related a circumstance of the possibility of keeping humming birds alive for some time, by means of sugar and water; but this was in their own country and climate. In addition to this, we have been informed, on undoubted veracity, of the following fact: a young gentleman, a few days before he set sail from Jamaica to England, was fortunate enough to meet with a female humming bird, sitting on the nest and eggs, when cutting off the twig, he brought all together on board the ship; the female became sufficiently tame, so as to suffer itself to be fed with honey, and during the passage hatched two young ones; however, the mother did not survive long, but the young were brought to England, and continued alive for some time in the possession of lady Hamond. Sir H. Englefield, baronet, and colonel Sloane, both witnesses of the circumstance, informed me that these little creatures readily took honey from the lips of lady Hamond, with their bills: one of them did not live long, but the other survived at least two months from the time of its arrival. I am not positively certain that it is the species I have here arranged it under; but I am inclined to think so, from the above gentlemen comparing it with the figure of the bird pointed out to them, and especially as it is the most common species found in that island.’ p. 171.

Of the *passeres*, (the most mischievous and insignificant genus, if we except the song of some species) the thrush has the most copious additions. We count twenty-seven species not before described; of which, as usual, New Holland furnishes the larger share. The additions to the *turdus bicolor*, of the third volume, deserve notice.

‘ *Turdus bicolor*, *Ind. Orn.* i. p. 350. 84.

‘ *Turdus bicolor*, Stourne Spreo, *Daud. Orn.* ii. p. 311. — *Levaill. Ois.* pl. 88.

• White-rumped Thrush, *Gen. Syn.* iii. p. 64. 75. — *Thrush. Trav.* ii. p. 48.

• Mr. Thunberg observes, that this bird is known at the Cape of Good Hope, by the name of sprew, and that it very frequently accompanies the larger cattle and sheep, "mornings and evenings, picking the insects, which dropping from the bushes upon the animals, and biting deep into their skins, stick very fast to them, and occasion them great pain;" that it is a shy bird, and makes the nest in the sides of rivers and brooks, and digs holes in the banks: they are observed also to feed on ripe grapes, and flying in great flocks, not unfrequently do much damage to the vineyards; however, by such kind of food the flesh is rendered very delicate: these birds do not always make the nest in banks, but sometimes in old ruined buildings, or holes of decayed trees, at others rob the swallows of their nest; the eggs are five or six in number; greenish spotted with brown.

• This we are inclined to believe is the locust-eating thrush mentioned by Mr. Barrow, as the chief if not the only food, appears to be larvæ of the migratory locusts, following the troops of these wherever they are. He observes that the bird is gregarious, making the nest in vast numbers together, not greatly different from the sociable grosbeak, appearing as one large nest, big enough for a vulture; which circumstance he observed at Sneeuwberg, on a clump of low bushes: on examination, the nest was found to consist of a number of cells, each of which was a separate nest, with a tube that led into it through the side; and of such cells, each clump contained from six to twenty, and one roof of interwoven twigs covered the whole, like that made by a magpie: most of them had young birds, generally five. The eggs are of a blueish white, with small faint reddish specks.' p. 179.

The grosbeaks are also enriched with nine new species. It is a species of this bird which is supposed to light his nest with fire-flies, by those who do not recollect that their *light* is connected with their *life*.

The *phytotoma* form a new genus—for we purposely pass over many which afford little novelty or interest—consisting, probably, of one species only strictly new; for the other is (perhaps with sufficient propriety) brought from the grosbeaks. It is the Abyssinian plant-cutter, the three-toed grosbeak of our author's third volume. The generic character, and the account of the only *new* species, we shall select.

- Bill conic, strait, serrated on the edges.
- Nostrils oval.
- Tongue short, obtuse.
- With four toes:

• *Phytotoma Rara*, *Ind. Orn.* i. p. 466. 1.—*Monil. Chil.* (Fr. ed.) p. 234.

• *Phytotome du Chili, ou Rara*, *Daudin. Orn.* ii. p. 366.

• Size of a quail: bill very strong, pointed at the tip, half an inch long, indented like a saw on the edges: tongue very short, blunt:

irides brown: the back is dusky grey: the under parts paler: tail of a moderate length, rounded at the end: quills and tail feathers spotted with black. The foot consists of four toes, three before and one behind; the hind toe much shorter than the forward ones.

'Inhabits Chili, where it is far from uncommon. The voice is rough, and the bird at intervals utters the words *ra, ra*, very distinctly: its food is vegetables, perhaps preferring the parts next the root, for with much pains, it digs about and cuts off the plants with its bill, as it were with a saw, close to the ground; from this circumstance, it does much injury to the gardens, and is detested by the inhabitants. These birds build the nest in high trees, well clothed with leaves, and in unfrequented places; the eggs are white, spotted with red.' P. 212.

The *muscipapa* has seventeen new species, almost wholly from Australasia, a country which has added very copiously to our ornithological systems; but we find nothing of peculiar importance. Of the larks, we have further accounts of some curiosity, though one new species only. The new species of warblers amount to seventeen. The following addition to the account of the nightingales is curious.

'In Lower Egypt, at least in the most eastern part of that quarter of the globe, the nightingale is very common; also in the islands of the Archipelago, at the period of their emigration. In some parts of Germany are also great numbers, for we are told, that they are found in vast abundance in the wood of Rosendahl, near Dresden; in which neighborhood larks also are in such amazing quantities, as to furnish a considerable revenue to the crown.

'It has not escaped the writers on this subject, that the males and females of some birds, for instance, chaffinches, separate for a time into different flocks, each flock consisting of one sex only; but my ingenious friend colonel Montagu hints to me, that the males of all the warblers come first, and if the weather should afterwards prove cold, with the wind at east or north, all communication is cut off between the sexes till the wind changes, frequently for a fortnight or more; but if the weather is warm, with a south or west wind, the females follow the males in a few days. The arrival of the females may be foretold by the singing of the males: if they are very vociferous, the females may be immediately expected; if, on the contrary, none will appear, for both are actuated by the same cause; the same stimulus that occasions the song in one, gives the other locomotion to seek its mate; and from this cause no doubt it is that more males of the nightingale are taken than females.' P. 233.

We could have wished to have enlarged on the minuter circumstances of some of the species; but that they would detain us too long, and not be generally interesting. The *pipra* and *caprimulgus* have each six new species; the *hirundo* three. A representation of the swallow and its esculent nest are inserted; but, from the various accounts of tra-

velers and naturalists, Mr. Latham thinks this delicacy may be the fabric of very different species.

The *menura* is wholly a new genus; and the only species, the *m. superba*, from New Holland, is little known; but we perceive a plate of it in colonel Collins's second volume: this will perhaps excuse our transcribing the description.

‘ Bill stout, conico-convex, a trifle naked at the base.

‘ Nostrils oval, placed in the middle of the bill.

‘ Tail long, consisting of sixteen loose webbed feathers; the two middle ones narrow, exceeding the others greatly in length; the outer one on each side growing much broader, and curved at the end.

‘ Legs stout, made for walking.

‘ This singular bird is about the size of a hen pheasant; the total length from the point of the bill to the end of the longest tail feathers is more than three feet and a half: the bill, from the tip to the beginning of the feathers at the base, is one inch and a quarter, but to the gape about half an inch more; it is nearly straight, except towards the end, where it is somewhat curved: the nostrils are a longish oval slit, placed beyond the middle part, where it is depressed; round the eye so little furnished with feathers, as to appear nearly bare: the head of the male is somewhat crested: the general colour of the plumage on the upper parts brown: the greater part of the wing inclining to rufous: the fore part of the neck, from the chin to the breast, inclines also to rufous, but the rest of the parts beneath are of a brownish ash colour, paler towards the vent: the tail consists of sixteen feathers, and is of a singular construction, being chiefly composed of loose webbed feathers, much resembling those springing from beneath the wings of the greater bird of paradise, but the vanes are placed at a quarter of an inch distance each; these feathers are twelve in number, and more than two feet in length; besides these are, firstly, two slender feathers which take rise from the centre of the tail above, and reach considerably beyond the ends of the others, and curve towards the end, they are fully webbed on the outer side, but on the inner only furnished with short vanes, one eighth of an inch long; and lastly, the exterior feather on each side is singularly conspicuous, in length somewhat shorter than any of the others, but the webs fully connected throughout, at the base about an inch wide, gradually increasing from thence to the extremity, where it is full two inches broad, and considerably curved; the outer web is pale brown, and narrow; the inner very broad, inclining to grey, but from the middle to the edge fine rufous, marked with sixteen curved marks seemingly of a darker colour, but on close inspection are perfectly transparent; the end of the feather dusky black, fringed all round with white: the thighs are covered with feathers quite to the knees: the legs scaly and rough, furnished with strong claws, curved much like those of a fowl or turkey: the colour of both bill and legs is glossy black.

‘ I find a second specimen of this bird in the British Museum, supposed to be the female, but I suspect it to be a young bird. In this the loose webbed feathers are only so from the middle to the ends, being the rest of their length closely connected as in other birds, and not

only the exterior feather has the crescents, but the next to it likewise on each side, though much less distinct. In this the two slender middle tail feathers were wanting, whether accidental or not could not be determined. Since my penning the above, I have been favoured by Mr. Thompson, of St. Martin's Lane, with the inspection of specimens of both male and female; the former seemed to answer to the first description; the latter is in comparison a very plain bird: it is not at all crested, and thirty-five inches long from bill to tail, which is cuneiform in shape; the longest feathers being nineteen inches long, the outer eleven inches; all the feathers as perfectly webbed as birds in general: the colour of the plumage is deep brown: belly inclining to ash colour, but the quills and tail are darker than the rest: the quills reach about two inches on the base of the tail.

'The above curious bird inhabits New Holland, where it is said to be rare; as yet we know only of five specimens having arrived in England, nor have we been able to obtain any account of its manners, or name it is known by among the natives. It may be suspected that the bird rather affects to be upon the ground, in the manner of our poultry, as the manifest wearing of the ends of the claws seems to justify; not but in all probability these birds may perch on trees of evenings occasionally, as is usual in many of the gallinaceous tribe.' P. 271.

The hybrid pheasant has already been the subject of our remarks, and the apparent ambiguity explained. The additions to the genus 'partridge' are curious. There are some other additions to the struthous birds; but we cannot notice every thing interesting, as that would render our article too extensive.

The American ostrich, sufficiently known from Willoughby and the Naturalist's Miscellany, is included under the appellation of *rhea*, forming a new genus. We greatly doubt whether it should not be included under the genus of ostrich.

In the second division, the additions, though not equally numerous, are important. The New Holland jabiru has been described in the Linnæan Transactions, and is the giant of the waders. The Senegal jabiru is equally singular and majestic. We can scarcely discover the reason for establishing it as a new species.

To the herons, there are numerous additions of importance, but one new species only. We find some additions to, and occasionally a new species of, some of the following genera: but the genus of plover is chiefly enlarged; and the new species are here not less than seven.

The *cereopsis* forms a new genus, from Australasia; and it seems to possess some appropriate discriminating marks, but offers no observation of importance. There are two new species of the *gallinule*, and two of the gull; but they also furnish no very interesting subjects of disquisition.

The genus 'anas' has many copious additions; and we find five new species, wholly from New Holland. The additions to the account of the swans are peculiarly curious and interesting; and of these we should have copied one or two, but that our article is already sufficiently extensive. Indeed the little space which remains, we reserve for the description of the Chinese pelican.

' Much has been said heretofore concerning the bird used by the Chinese for fishing; we were led to think, from what Linnæus had been informed, that at least one of the sexes was white, but we owe to sir George Staunton the intire development of the true species, not only by his observation on the mode whilst in China, but by having brought home various specimens for examination, from whence it appears that the bird is strictly neither a corvorant nor shag, though approaching thereto, but a distinct species: the bill is yellow: irides blue: the general colour of the plumage brownish black: chin white: the body whitish beneath, spotted with brown: tail rounded, consisting of twelve feathers.

' In the journey to Han-choo-foo, on the river Luen, sir George observed, on a large lake close to this part of the canal, and to the eastward of it, thousands of small boats and rafts, built entirely for this species of fishery; on each boat or raft were ten or twelve birds, which at a signal from the owner plunge into the water, and it is astonishing to see the enormous size of fish with which they return grasped in their bills. They appeared to be so well trained, that it did not require either ring or cord about their throats, to prevent them from swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master was pleased to return to them for encouragement and food. The boat used by these fishermen is of a remarkably light make, and is often carried to the lake, together with the fishing birds, by the men who are there to be supported by it.' P. 364.

At the close are some additions to the former accounts, but not particularly curious or interesting. Of the Supplement to the Index, we need say little; but that it has the same relation to the present volume, that the Index itself had to the former. On the value of this volume, and the whole work, we need not enlarge. The opinion of naturalists of every country has decided on the merits of the Synopsis; and it is generally considered as an ornithological system peculiarly elegant and accurate; and, we are happy to add, now carefully completed.

ART. XII. — *A Walk through Southampton.* By Sir Henry C. Englefield, Bart. F.R.S. and F.A.S. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1801.

THIS elegant and amusing little work must be highly gratifying to the inhabitants of Southampton, and is not without interest to readers in general, but will be particularly so to those fond of antiquarian research. We shall select a short specimen of more general entertainment.

‘ From hence’ (the Chapel mill) ‘ the walk to the Itchen ferry, at high water, is very beautiful, commanding a view of the opposite steep and woody shore, and enlivened with a multitude of vessels of different sizes, laid up or under repair. The little round building called the Cross-house, erected for the accommodation of passengers waiting for the boat, has marks of considerable antiquity, and is not an ugly edifice. In one of the quarters are the arms of Southampton, with the date only of 1634: but parts of the building seem to be of much earlier date. At this point, the ferrymen of the Itchen ferry do homage to the mayor and corporation, whenever the perambulation of the boundaries of the town is performed: and in return for the permission of landing on the demesne of the town, engage at all times to carry over gratis the burghesses and their families.

‘ From this point a causeway of near half a mile long, planted with trees, leads to the platform and south gate. This walk, which is called the Beach, commands in its whole length a view of the Southampton water, closed by the Isle of Wight; and it is not easy to imagine a more beautiful or interesting water scene. The view of the town is also pretty, and the new church of All Saints appears from hence to great advantage. It is to be lamented, that the marshy meadow close to the causeway is not drained and improved. The salubrity of the town, and above all of the suburb of St. Mary’s, calls loudly for it; and the ground in an enclosed or even a drier state, would amply repay the expence; but contested rights of common have (in this as in a thousand other instances) hitherto prevented that being done, which every body separately approves.’ p. 78.

In the remains of antiquity, there are few carvings. ‘ The carved members of imposts and arches,’ and the Norman zigzag, do not appear; and the arches are flatter than semi-circles, some being segments of circles, and some portions of an ellipse. These circumstances show considerable antiquity.

The name, in our author’s opinion, is derived from the river Anton. The Roman establishments, it is probable, were at Northam and Bittern; but the Saxons preferred the more elevated spots for their fortifications.

‘ The peculiar advantages of the narrow and rather high point of land on which Southampton now stands, commanding at once the Itchen and Test, and very easily fortified on the land side, could not

escape their notice; and from the high circular hill on which the keep of the castle formerly stood, and the curved line of its yet remaining wall, we have probable grounds for supposing it to be among the most ancient of the Saxon castles. But besides the present existing fortifications, there is great reason to suspect that the northern ditch of the town, filled up within the memory of man, and of uncommon breadth and depth, was continued quite across, till it met the Itchen, and completely insulated the castle and present town. The antiquity of the Bar-gate, whose central round arch is evidently much older than any of the other gates of the town, is no small confirmation of this supposition; as the walls and gates, with the exception of the Bar-gate, appear to have been built at once, and are very uniform in their structure, some small parts only excepted, which we shall consider more particularly presently.' P. 84.

The town grew under the protection of the castle; and St. Michael's church was apparently the earliest structure of this kind. The Saxon kings had, probably, a palace on the shore; and our author thinks that there are still remains of a secular habitation of consequence; and that, probably, the reproof of Canute to the impious flattery of his courtiers occurred on Southampton beach. It was certainly on this part of the coast.

ART. XIII.—*Journal of a Party of Pleasure to Paris, in the Month of August, 1802: by which any Person intending to take such a Journey may form an accurate Idea of the Expence that would attend it, and the Amusement he would probably receive. Together with thirteen Views from Nature, illustrative of French Scenery; aquatinted by J. Hill, from Drawings by the Author. 8vo. 10s.6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

WE have been much entertained by this little sketch, which, though truly slight, is not without useful information.

'The following pages are intended only as useful hints to such of my countrymen as may wish to make a short tour on the continent; by which, they may be enabled to escape many difficulties; as well as be directed to what is really most worthy their notice, and particularly to those whose time is limited, or whose acquaintance with French manners is not sufficient to guard them against the numberless inconveniences to which an English traveller is at present subject.' P. vi.

The difficulty of procuring information respecting a journey to France, untinged with politics, or those strong sensations which the late events must excite, was the author's motive for publishing his journal,

' If it has no pretensions to merit from the scanty information it contains, criticism will be disarmed by the consideration that general utility is its only aim, and that the efforts I have made are to give a faithful portrait of things as they appeared.

' It has become an almost universal wish to see what has been the effect of this wonderful revolution both on the country and the people. To those who were acquainted with it under the monarchy, the change must be indeed striking; and to those who have never been in France, most highly interesting, as a practical lesson of the good or evil resulting to a powerful people from the destruction of all ancient constituted authorities. From trifling matters we form a judgment of more important concerns; and in passing with an observant eye through this country, I have found much to wonder at, much to censure, and something to admire.' P. vii.

We cannot follow the author through his minute details; but shall select some circumstances, which will discriminate the present state of France from what it was under the ancient *régime*. The following account of the French funds is not new—and, indeed, is implied in the term *tiers consolidé*, the consolidated third—but it is not generally known.

' I had occasion to ask some questions relative to the state of funded property in France, on which nothing has been received by the holders, since the revolution; and heard the following curious account of it. Any person holding for instance, £.300 stock under the old government, is obliged to accept one third, namely, £.100 stock, which pays an interest from the 21st of March 1798, up to the 21st of March 1800, in paper called *bons*, worth at an average 50 per cent. cash. The interest from the 21st of March 1800, to this day and hereafter, is payable in cash. The arrears of interest previous to the 21st of March 1798, are entirely cut off.

' Whatever the stock is, the original contract must be given up; if life annuity, a certificate of birth and life of the party must be produced. Life certificate, if in London, to be delivered by Mr. Otto; if at a distance, by the chief magistrate of the place; if a perpetual annuity, nothing more is required than a power of attorney.

' It so happened that I had a claim to make for monies acknowledged by Mons. Perregaux, to be in his hands in the year 1792, by letter at that time—for instance, the sum of £.500. This sum I fully expected to receive, and was told that I might do so, but that it was in assignats; and not worth more than two shillings and eight pence. Mr. Perregaux, as well as other people, are in possession of immense quantities of this paper, which is all marked with the names to whom it belongs. It was during the dreadful day of Robespierre, when every one on pain of death was obliged to take these assignats, of which, when he had issued a quantity sufficient for his purpose, an order came out that they were worth nothing; and the ruling powers at present in France, make no compensation to the losers by this act of oppression.' P. 34.

A lady in our author's party purchased a patent net En-

lish veil for real French lace. This circumstance, 'credible,' in the author's opinion, 'to the English manufactures,' we mention for another reason. Some good patriots have feared that ill-manufactured French goods will be smuggled to England, to the detriment of our own workmen. In fact, many English fabrics are brought from France, *as French*. It was so, even in the reign of the monarchs; and the deceit is not forgotten. Liberty and equality still prevail; while the spoils of assassins—such as gold snuff-boxes, and *liqueurs* from golden cups—are found amongst the most contemptible wretches, perhaps themselves the plunderers.—The description of a superb illumination we shall transcribe.

'To describe the whole would be impossible, but the scene is too impressive on my mind not to attempt a sketch of a few particular places here, in order to give my readers some conjectural idea of the grandeur of the whole. And first I shall begin with the *Place Vendôme*, which was extremely beautiful. It is of a circular form, and as large as the Circus at Bath; at about twenty feet from the houses was placed a rotunda of lofty pillars, painted to imitate coloured marble, at equal distances, connected by festoons of flowers, and wreathed with coloured lamps from top to bottom, the whole surmounted with transparencies, and crowned with republican flags.

'In the middle of the area was a very large illuminated column, which enabled every one (from the reflection of the light within) to read the New Constitution, which was inscribed upon it in divisions. Out of the top appeared to grow a large forest tree, (which had been cut down and stuck up there for the purpose,) with the leaves illuminated with small coloured lamps which hung like fruit, and waved gently to and fro with the wind, whilst the whole was girt with a circle of fire-pots.

'At the bottom of the Boulevards stands an unfinished church, with a lofty colonnade of pillars, the whole of which were wreathed with lamps and large figures of angels placed on the top; from thence, looking towards the *Place de la Revolution*, which seemed one blaze of fire, the *coup d'œil* was impressive to the last degree, and which those only who know the grandeur of that place can possibly form an adequate idea of.

'Fire-pots on triangular frame-work, about fifteen feet high, were arranged at equal distances all round it; looking towards the Tuilleries; all the walks were lighted in the same manner—all the statues appearing brilliantly white in the midst of the green trees with which they were surrounded—all the architraves of the magnificent palace of the Tuilleries were laid out in fire, as were all the other buildings near it. Across the *Pont Concorde* appeared the *Palais Bourbon* in a blaze of light; and looking towards the Champs Elisées, at the end of the Vista, the eye was further delighted by a display of fire-works.

'All the round ponds in the gardens were girt with fire-pots, and the bronzes and statues caught and reflected the light in a most pleasing manner. A grand concert was then performed in the open air; after which a fresh display of fire-works on the Seine; so that in short

all that the fairy tales have told us seemed to have been realized. The night was serenity itself, and the pale moon added her mild rays to the general splendor of the scene.

'On the top of *Notre Dame* was placed a beautiful star in coloured lamps, which was, I suppose, in reference to the star seen in the east by the wise men of old.' P. 61.

We can find room for but little more: this little shall be destined to the remains of fallen greatness. We shall not now enlarge on the subject, but copy the description.

'As we drew nearer Versailles the relics of antient grandeur became more frequent; the road is extremely wide and handsome; but the town looks forsaken and desolate; the grass actually growing in the streets, and the inhabitants in poverty and wretchedness, reaping the fruits of their ingratitude to the royal family, on whose bounty they and their fathers had so long subsisted.

'We partook of an excellent breakfast at the inn, and were strongly solicited to order our dinner there; but this we resolved not to do, (but as I would recommend all future travellers to do) determined to dine at the little Trianon, which is now occupied by a *traiteur*, and ordered our carriage to meet us there in the evening.

'We proceeded from the inn under the conduct of a ragged rascal, in a cocked hat, who undertook to be our Cicerone; and as we proceeded up the great court to the palace, havock and devastation met our eye on every side; this front of the palace is commanding, and rich in the architecture, but not so handsome as the other. But who could, without emotion, behold the windows broken and barred up, the doors falling off their hinges, the grass waving in the court yards, where formerly a weed was never seen, and where all was gaiety and splendour. Much damage has been done to the exterior of the building; all ornaments relative to the crown have been knocked off; some few of the cornices battered down by shot, and upon the whole the marks of decay approaching fast.

'We walked through the magnificent saloons, in which all the indifferent pictures are left, but the better ones removed; the mirrors in general taken out of the frames, but the frames left; and though almost all the furniture is removed, there yet remained an air of grandeur about the apartments that was very impressive. At present, it appears to be entirely uninhabited, except by a very few attendants and guards; and there were many dirty citizens lounging about, and seeming to feel themselves quite at home.

'The palace, in former times, must have been of the first degree of grandeur; the state apartments are of noble proportion, but the ceilings in general overloaded with gilding and allegorical device; the rain has penetrated in many places through them, and will in a very short time, if no measures are taken to repair the palace, entirely destroy them.' P. 76.

'From hence we walked to the little Trianon, a small Italian villa, built by the last queen for her own residence, and very much frequented

by her. Here she spent much time away from the king, and, if report be not a liar, this retirement was not the court of Diana.

'The gardens are delightful, much in the English style; and the drawing given here describes some detached buildings, constructed in imitation of English cottages, on the edge of a small lake, formerly most elegantly furnished for the accommodation of such of her own family and friends as visited her in this retirement.

'The house itself is now occupied by a *traiteur*, and we partook of our dinner in a small room that was the queen's *boudoir*, immediately adjoining her bed-room. It is now entirely dismantled of its former splendid furniture, and bears nothing of the palace about it but the name; at the same time that it is extremely pretty.' P. 82.

The journal, which may be useful to future travelers, is illustrated with aquatinted plates, of which we cannot speak very highly.

ART. XIV.—*A few Days in Paris; with Remarks characteristic of several distinguished Personages.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

A BOLD decided manner distinguishes this little pamphlet, which shows the author to be of a superior class; and we believe his name has been successfully guessed at: he is evidently a military man, of no inconsiderable talents.

Our author speaks of the first consul with a manly spirit; and feels no little indignation at the servility with which Bonaparte is apparently courted.

'The first consul has been seen. He may say with Rica, on his arrival in Paris from Persia, "*Que jamais homme n'a été tant vu que moi.*" He has been heard too—several English noblemen, many gentlemen, members of parliament, officers of the navy and army, officers of the militia, of volunteers and fencibles, yeomanry and cavalry, "pioneers and all," I had almost said, have flocked to the levee of the first consul: I put it to their candid reflection if it has been worth while. I know that general Bonaparte receives them, as well he may, with that appearance of respect, at least, which, on the continent, is involuntarily paid to the national character of Englishmen; nay more, he is courteous, affable, and, in this instance only, condescending. Though his whole life has been consumed in study and in the field, yet are his manners easy and conciliating.

'The person of the first consul is small, below the ordinary size of men. The consular garb does not become him; he looks best in the plain uniform of a national guard, which he much affects to wear. His face is strongly marked with melancholy, reflection, and deep thought; the lines of premature age are very visible in him. He is said to be impenetrable, even to his friends—dreadful state! But this ill accords with the boiling rage he threw himself into at the discomfiture at Acre. His eyes are well formed, and well set, animating a countenance which has been seldom known to smile. His voice is the

deepest toned I ever heard, and seems to issue from a tomb. His mouth is large and handsome; and in general it may be asserted, there is that harmony of features which denotes "an entire character." The various resemblances of him are tolerably exact; though they by no means do him justice, nor give his look, which is extremely interesting.' P. 3.

The description of the reviews has been often repeated. We shall select that of the levee.

' But when the audience, as it is called, of ambassadors, and the presentation of foreigners, took place, there was no longer that animation, that real business produces. The first consul gives but an hour to this English homage (for there were scarce any other foreigners at court) and mockery of presentation; and being evidently in a mask, little more was to be observed, but the constraint of ceremony, and the desire to be gone: and it was rather mortifying to see English gentlemen so delighted with the few and idle questions which were put to them. What is there interesting in being asked the county or town, that a member of parliament represents; or if a nobleman or gentleman, where he lives; or an officer in the navy or army, what ship he commands, or what regiment he belongs to? Indeed, what other questions can the first consul ask, so entirely cut off as he is, in opinion, from all Europe, and all social life.

' It must not be imagined that the court of the Thuilleries bears any resemblance to those of ancient states and long established governments: in them, the monarch is acknowledged (in our's loved) by the great body of the people. In the principal courts of Europe, the sovereign and his house indulge, more or less, in friendly intercourse with many families around them. This cannot have place either at Mal Maison or St. Cloud, or at the Thuilleries. It would be tedious, and might appear personally invidious to go into the causes of this; they must be striking to every man of sense. Indeed, were it not for the English who resort to Paris, the Thuilleries would have little of the character of a court; not one family of estimation in France gracing it with their presence.' P. 11.

' One or two things occurred, which, as they are characteristic of general Bonaparte, may not be unacceptable. For instance, it was pretty boldly pushed in him, considering that he had but very lately annexed Piedmont to France, and ordered 40,000 men to do military execution in Switzerland, to advise a lawyer, and a member of the imperial British parliament to be a friend to peace—"Il faut cultiver la paix." The opportunity would not have been unfavourable to have replied, "Sans craindre la guerre."

' An English gentleman was presented to him whose name he mistook for that of Mr. Grey. His countenance expressed the satisfaction he felt in seeing, as he imagined, that gentleman at his court. General Bonaparte does not *know* Mr. Grey. It is certain, that what was called "the opposition" in England, is most favourably received in Paris.

' But it was truly painful to see Mr. Fox regular in his attendance

at the new court of the Thuilleries; and to reflect how almost entirely he had estranged himself from the "high court of parliament" of his country.

' True it is, we are at peace with France; and that the forms of civility and good neighbourhood, established between independent states, would require that so distinguished a personage as Mr. Fox should pay due honour to the government where he may please to sojourn. Besides, Mr. Fox has met with every facility in his literary researches at Paris, and with the most marked attention from every one.

' It was therefore to be expected, that he would take the first opportunity of appearing at the court of the Thuilleries. But it may be asked, what there was in his first interview with the chief consul, that could induce Mr. Fox to present himself so continually before him?

' On the part of the consular chief, the conversation was coarse and violent. Those who remember the debate on the Quebec bill, in the year 1791 or 1792, must recollect with what pangs Mr. Fox then separated from the friends of his heart and life. General Bonaparte began by asking him, if he saw much of one of the dearest of these friends, Mr. Windham. Mr. Fox said, they had differed so entirely on affairs of state, that they met but seldom.

' It is a fact, that the first consul proceeded to charge his manly friend, in conjunction with Mr. Pitt, with being the instigator of the attempt upon his life, in the construction of the infernal machine.

' Mr. Fox repelled the foul aspersion like a man who felt for the honor of his country. He assured the first consul that neither Mr. Windham, nor Mr. Pitt, were capable of such baseness; indeed, that assassination was not at all of the character of Englishmen.

' It would have been generous, and not ill-bred, in general Bonaparte to have yielded, though but for a moment, to Mr. Fox's determined sentiment on this subject: but no; such is his rancorous hatred of these honourable men, that the first consul repeated his most settled conviction, that they were the great movers in the conspiracy against his life. This is making himself of the utmost consequence, however.

' The conversation then turned on politicks. General Bonaparte said, the emperor was raising great difficulties on the settlement of the indemnities in Germany; that he had forgot that *he* had been in possession of his dominions two or three times; and that if the treaty of Luneville could be reconsidered, he, general Bonaparte, would order it much otherwise; so entirely does he think himself dictator of Europe.

' I forbear to state Mr. Fox's answer, as I am not quite sure of the fact. But of this I am too certain, that the British senator was at the Thuilleries a few days after the atrocious proclamation against the Swiss. That any Englishman should, by his presence at that court and capital, give the least support, and, in some degree, sanction, to that cruel government, is a painful thought; but that Mr. Fox should continue to go there——! !' p. 14.

We admire the decisive spirit of this representation; and

shall add an anecdote to our author's. When an eloquent barrister, and a decided member of opposition, was presented to Bonaparte, the name only was announced.—'Qui est ce monsieur?'—In a hurry, the person who presented him, said—'C'est un avocat.'—'Un avocat?' returned the consul, not recollecting a name that he had often heard, and passed on with contempt. The gentleman returned in disgust: but, we believe, an apology was conveyed by the ambassador, in one of his earliest visits to any individual. We suspect that, since these events, the predilection for the first consul is in its wane.

In France, there is scarcely (it is said by our author) any society, except a few parties at madame Recamier's and monsieur Tallien's. The middle rank, which was expected to form a valuable scion from the old stock, is unknown; and the boasted improvements, splendid trifles.

'But it is in their courts of law, and justice, that the effects of their revolution are most painfully seen. I shall not be believed, when I state, that the places apparently destined for the jury, were occupied by detachments of armed men. It was the same at the exposition of manufactures at the old Louvre, during the five complementary days of the last republican year. The square was divided into one hundred and four compartments or shops—every one of which had a centry in it.

'It is the opinion of men, conversant in arts and manufactures, that this annual exhibition amounts to little more than an idle gratification of the people of Paris. I purchased several articles of, what appeared to be, ingenious workmanship; but when I came to examine them they were miserably defective. Some of the tradesmen told me, I had better come to their shops in Paris. Certain it is that very little business was done.

'Indeed, what hope can there be of the arts reviving in France? Equally idle, is their expectation of foreign trade, without home consumption. What encouragement is there for either one or the other? The new people who have possessed themselves of the public fortune, have neither taste nor spirit to spend it. I know this to be the case in Paris, and I am assured it is the same at Lyons, and in other great cities of France.' P. 26.

The remarks on the pictures and the fine arts are equally bold and original, though short. Our author thinks that the crimes of the French, in their plunder of temples and palaces, will be their own punishment. By collecting so many originals, they will become a nation of copyists—and of unsuccessful copyists. It may be so; some very severe punishments should be, sooner or later, the result of so many enormities. The appendix is not particularly interesting at this time.

ART. XV.—*The Praise of Paris: or, a Sketch of the French Capital; in Extracts of Letters from France, in the Summer of 1802; with an Index of many of the Convents, Churches, and Palaces, not in the French Catalogues, which have furnished Pictures for the Louvre-Gallery. By S. W., F. R. S. F. A. S. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Baldwin. 1803.*

TO 'hear both sides,' (whatever be the merit of the comedy) is, in most essential points, highly proper. Let us attend, then, to our author's motives.

* During the interim between ninety-two and eighteen hundred and two, (when I revisited her again) she had continued in a state of siege for ten years, beset with troubles from without, and violent agitations from within, and perpetual spoil. But all things have an end; and now, on my return to the same place, before so full of confusion and disorder, I find it swept and garnished, restored to its senses, and in its right mind. This extraordinary change calls aloud for commendation, and is a sufficient apology for my title, "The Praise of Paris;" but since we all see things and persons with different eyes, (and most fortunately for the general content, and the acquisition of truth and reality) many, probably, will be more inclined to find fault than to commend; in order, therefore, to preserve some balance between panegyric and pasquinade, and prevent the preponderance of censure, I have resolved to reserve the good part to myself, and leave the bad for my fellow-travellers; just as the hero of Ivry served his prime minister, by giving him all his troublesome affairs to negotiate, and keeping the tariff of favours, and the dispensation of benefits in his own hands.

* The marks of a revolution, such as has turned France upside down, and set the pedestrian on horseback, cannot be all effaced in the twinkling of a decree, or the issue of a programma; and yet one finds much less real alteration at Paris than might have been expected; for if the still life be metamorphosed, and the churches turned into exchanges, and the hotels become eating-houses, yet the living inhabitants have the same address they ever had; wear the same smiling countenances; and receive you with the same open arms; and even if you touch upon their losses, they bear it with moderation, and console themselves in a couplet, and plead reduction of income as an excuse for not giving you a dinner. They sing to any tune you please, for instance, words like these:

' Mon salaire sur le grand livre
Réduit au tiers forme mon sort,
Avec ce tiers il faut vivre
Sous un régime à la Rumfort.' p. iii.

Our present author does not feel the indignation of 'a few days' visitor: he does not look so closely, or feel so sensibly. 'Vive la bagatelle' is his motto; and the opera, the theatres, the Louvre, and the Tuilleries, amuse and entertain him. Could we shut our eyes to massacres and mur-

ders, to anarchy and rebellion, we should do the same; and, in time, perhaps, may forget, as others have already forgotten them.

In reviewing the present work, we cannot follow the author closely. He starts from one subject to another, with a rapidity which defies every pursuer; and no words, shorter than his own, can describe the different scenes noticed. The remarks on the medals and the inscriptions show that he is a man of learning, and well versed in the science of archæology. We shall select a few specimens.—As the chief consul is the great object, we shall first, however, notice him; and prefer the account of the same presentation which we have copied from the author just mentioned.

‘ It has been usual not to invite to dinner persons even of the first rank and distinction, till they have been twice at court, but this rule was dispensed with in the case of one gentleman, because his nephew was invited, it being his second time of appearing at the audience, when his uncle was first presented. The first consul does not say a great deal to any body, as may be supposed, but he said more, perhaps, to this gentleman than to any other individual. He had already said before his arrival to members of parliament presented as such, that he hoped the new parliament would be as pacifick as the old one, but to him he said, I am very happy that you have been presented to me; I admire your talents and your virtues; you were the first to put an end to the massacres of the human race; you were always for peace; I consider you as the greatest man of a great nation. He then passed on to another, to whom he said, You were lord-mayor in a year of scarcity, I know full well what it is *de reprimer le peuple quand le pain est cher*. Then turning to a Hamburg merchant, he said, You are very sorry the peace is made. At dinner the conversation turned on the *machine infernale*, of which the first consul was strongly inclined to believe the late ministry were the abettors; but the gentleman first mentioned took it up very warmly, and with great eloquence, and force of argument, showed that such a contrivance was totally incompatible with the principles of any English administration whatsoever.’
p. 28.

Once more.

‘ The first consul continues to surprise the English at every audience, by the extent and variety of his talents, which enable him to speak to every one in his own language. With the natural philosophers, his discourse is on double animals, such as the *oxyrynchus paradoxus*, sent by sir Joseph Banks to the *Cabinet du Jardin des Plantes*; from thence he goes to Galvanism, on which he delivered his opinion, at the Institute, in a grey frock, like a common member. With the bankers, and Hamburg merchants, he talks of the difference of the *aggio* in Holland and Venice, or the *vantaggio* of current coin over bank-stock; of the men of physick he enquires, whether they are *sthenics* or *asthenics*, and if they approve of the Brunian system, of which he had heard so much in Italy.

‘ In the complementary days, when he made the tour of the shops in the court of the old Louvre, he surprised the glass-manufacturers exceedingly, by telling them the chymical process they used to give the deep purple colour to their decanters.

‘ In all these things, however multifarious, he seldom betrays himself, or, like Alexander, asks questions that make the colour-grinders smile at his ignorance. It is very extraordinary that a man, whose ambition prompts him to subdue the world and govern it, and who has made no inconsiderable progress towards the attainment of his wishes, should have still leisure and inclination left to inquire, and inform himself not only of what is doing in general, but of the occupation and employment of individuals. Every artist tries his hand at Bonaparte’s features, but they do not all succeed in giving an idea of him to the best advantage, which is, when he smiles; but to paint the first consul smiling, they perhaps think contrary to *etiquette*. When the duke of Orleans sat to Greuze for his picture, the painter asked his highness how he liked it, “Very well, but, Greuze, you have not given me a smile:” *Monseigneur, ce n’est pas noble*. The best likeness of Bonaparte on horseback, with his hat on, is, that of the picture exhibited, N° 22, Piccadilly; the best without a hat, is a print with the name of Le Fevre to it. There is a bust of Julius Cæsar, when young, not unlike the first consul. The French themselves describe him thus: *Il a une figure chatoyante, a face emitting rays like a cat’s-eye stone; son sourire est agréable, mais sa figure allongée, ou baissée, est pleine de mélancolie*, like the cheerless oval visage of the Stuarts.’ P. 133.

We shall select two other specimens: one of an archæological, the other of a scientific, nature. They are sufficiently curious, to apologise for their length, which, however, according to our author’s usual rapidity, is not considerable.

‘ A coin of extreme rarity, and extraordinary beauty, has been very lately added to the collection,’ (*viz.* of the Cabinet of Medals) ‘ a Demetrius in gold, with the head of the king on one side, and on the reverse, *equus pileatus decurrens ad dextram*, with a spear in the right hand of the horseman. This is the type of the coin of Pelinna in Thessaly, with this difference, that there the horseman with the same sort of cap is galloping to the left. Although the national cabinet be so rich, yet there are articles even in private collections in England, not to be found in this vast repository; I shall just mention one in the possession of Taylor Combe, esq. *Ælia Placidia*, daughter of Valentinian III. and Eudoxia, and wife of Olybrius, a senator of Constantinople. I am in hopes Mr. T. Combe will give the society of antiquaries some account of this Placidia, who is totally distinct from Galla Placidia to be found in most cabinets, the sister of Arcadius and Honorius. Mr. Combe’s coin is in gold, (AEL PLACIDIA AVG. Caput Augustæ, Vol. XX. MVL. XXX. Victoria Stans d. crucem oblongam, intermedio astro) and has never been published.’ P. 42.

‘ In the hot-house of the national garden, I saw two new geraniums lately sent from Africa, one of which was perfectly so, not in its flower indeed, which was of two colours, red and white, but in its

stalk, which was covered with short spines. The African species of geraniums are generally distinguishable from their European congeners by the irregularity of the corolla, and the connection of the stamina. The other geranium had a flower very like the *Alstroemeria*, and had not been yet named. Citizen Faujas read geological lectures whilst I was at Paris, in the clearest and more perspicuous manner, and with the greatest ability, demonstrating as he went on from the best and richest specimens of all sorts, relative to his subject, of which he was supplied with the most abundant apparatus; but what was better than all this, he read gratis, by order of the nation, and was obliged to you, or any foreigner, who came to hear him. He began, indeed, with a paper, but he soon threw it away; nor was he less luminous, or more immethodical without it. In one of his lectures he entered into a calculation, to show from a position, that human bodies, when buried, turn to calcareous earth; how much of this material would be produced from all the *interis* of the globe in seven years, and he found it would be enough to build the church of Saint Genevieve. In his six lectures on volcanos, he exhausted the subject, and showed us the difference of the several systems, the Vulcanian, the Neptunian, and the Huttonian, which is the Plutonian, and his own opinion, which will appear when his lectures shall be published. He told us, among other curious particulars, that the fire of the volcanos acted under the granite; that the difference between common fire and volcanic, was in the destruction of the matter by the former, and the preservation of it by the latter, since volcanic furnaces in activity fused the matter without destroying the parts: that the explosion of a volcano was not to be imitated in the mines.' p. 56.

We cannot dismiss this work, without acknowledging the entertainment we have received from it; and recommending it as a lively well-written description of the chief objects to be seen in Paris.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

ART. 16.—*Vindication of the political Conduct of the Rt. Hon. W. Windham, addressed to his Opponents at the late Election for the City of Norwich.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cobbett and Morgan. 1802.

THE loss of an election is an event to which more importance is usually attached by the unsuccessful candidate than can be discerned by the public. Each city or town has its own contests, and feels little

interest in those of its neighbours. We have lived to witness hundreds of such defects as are the subject of this pamphlet; and have never found that the nation was a gainer or loser in any permanent degree, by the effervescence of local opinion, or the lamentations of personal disappointment. That so strenuous an advocate for perpetuity of war, as Mr. Windham, should have been rejected by a manufacturing city, which has been eminently a sufferer, and in which poverty has created discontent, may be accounted for on principles less hostile to the general welfare of the country than what are advanced in this Vindication. And when we agree with the author that Mr. Windham is not yet 'lost to the country, that he will still take his share in its deliberative councils, and that he is not even lost to this city (Norwich), inasmuch as it forms a part of a large and widely extended empire,' it is natural to ask, Why the vindication of his political conduct should be other than a personal concern? what advantages to the nation may not yet result from Mr. Windham's counsels, and what advantages did he himself derive from the representation of Norwich, which he may not enjoy from his constituents of St. Mawes?

The first attempt of his vindicator is to lessen the triumph of Mr. Windham's opponents; and this is the natural suggestion of disappointed expectations; but it is not always wisely conducted. 'The opinions of a majority,' he tells us, 'have no natural and inherent authority.' Had we met with this sentiment, insulated from its connexions, we could have approved it as referring to the determination of abstract truths; but, as applied to elections, or to the general affairs of a political state, it is something worse than nonsense. The opinions of a majority form the *only* authority by which an election is decided, a law enacted, or a criminal punished. If this writer can produce any other authority for these proceedings, it is time he should declare it, that the councils and events of the nation may be no longer guided by majorities.

His next attempt is to prove that Mr. Windham's political conduct was tried by 'incompetent judges; that is, by the majority of the people of Norwich. We have no means of ascertaining the *quantum* of understanding which belongs to that people: they are probably neither better nor worse than their fellow subjects in other parts of the kingdom; and they rejected Mr. Windham, because they did not approve his conduct. For doing this, we apprehend they have an authority or a power, which this writer would in vain wrest from them. Although he may be allowed to assert that Mr. Windham is right in his opinions, he cannot prove that his constituents are wrong in the exercise of their franchise; and we may affirm, without risk of contradiction, that there are men who have differed in sentiment from Mr. Windham, whose minds are as enlightened as his own, and who are as capable of vindicating their conduct. It is no new thing, however, to hear a clamour against the ignorance and incompetency of constituents to judge the conduct of their representatives; but, to what purpose such a clamour is raised, unless to abolish the elective franchise altogether, we cannot discover.

If we could forget these preliminary attacks on constitutional custom, which in truth contaminate the whole pamphlet, the author's Vindication of Mr. Windham's opposition to the peace would merit our

warmest approbation. We hope the time will never come in which a member of parliament shall be blamed for exercising freedom of speech. 'No writer upon the principles of government, either of the old or modern school, ever affected to withhold deliberative powers from a legislative delegate.' Such is our author's opinion; but, to render it consistent with fact and experience, he ought to allow a like privilege to the constituent, else, wherefore permit him septennially to decide upon the conduct of his representative?

From Mr. Windham's opinion on the peace, this writer passes to a long digression on the usurpations of France, and the existence of Jacobinism, 'as pernicious under the sword of Bonaparte as the guillotine of Robespierre.' On this subject we shall not offer many observations, nor inquire in what degree the hustings at Norwich were affected by the subjugation of Switzerland. The word *Jacobinism* has been too serviceable, in the late contest of parties, to be yet discarded; and those who have no particular relish for etymologies and definitions, may still employ this verbal weapon, whether a kingdom have lost its independence, or a candidate his election.

Mr. Windham's opposition to the motion made in parliament to restrain bull-baiting, naturally comes in for a large portion of the vindicator's zeal. In this part of his subject, he adopts Mr. Windham's *reasonings*, if we may so call them, in their fullest latitude; but, like his favourite hero, he has forgotten to remove one contradiction, which sheds a ludicrous influence over the whole. If it were *trifling* with the *gravity* of parliament to introduce this motion, because magistrates *already* possess ample powers of restraint, we would ask, Why are magistrates yet invested with powers to restrain sports so beneficial to the nation?—'sports, which' (to use the author's words) 'interpose salutary alleviations to the cares of life, while they influence, and in no very slight degree, the moral feelings of a people. The very ferocity, shocking as it is to the nerves of a commercial age, which is mingled in them, keeps alive that contempt of danger, and that love of enterprise, which enters deeply into the formation of a martial character.'—What the author means by the nerves of a *commercial* age, we know not; and it would perhaps be waste of time, to request he would point out in what manner the cares of life are to be alleviated by an act of cruelty, or according to what process of mind a contempt of danger is acquired by the cowardly depriving an animal of its natural powers of resistance, that it may be tortured in safety.

The remainder of this pamphlet is occupied in censuring the Jacobinism of Norwich, with the strength or proportion of which we are unacquainted; and the author's language is too general and declamatory to point out the specific objects of his abhorrence. Upon the whole, however, this Vindication of Mr. Windham seems not sufficiently appropriate to the man. The whole stress is laid on two topics—the peace, and the bull-baiting motion: his opponents had probably some other grounds for withdrawing their esteem from Mr. Windham, which are not here noticed; and, when the vindicator reminds them of Mr. Windham's consistency, they may probably recollect circumstances that will very considerably diminish the praise ascribed to him on this account. Some may remember that he was once a whig, and may blame him for not being a whig still; while others may think that a

whig education is very unfit for a tory statesman, and suspect those sudden changes of opinion, which are followed by promotion. Nor is any notice taken here of Mr. Windham's resignation or dismissal from office—a point which, we apprehend, must be cleared up, before an opinion can be given of the consistency of any member of the late administration.

ART. 17.—*Thoughts on the late General Election, as demonstrative of the Progress of Jacobinism.* By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1802.

The general turn of Mr. Bowles's writings is now too well known to render it necessary for us to point out their tendency. We have often been compelled to differ from him; and, we trust, not without respect to his abilities and industry; and we have frequently found it more easy to justify the motives, than the spirit, with which he writes. In the present work, however, there is much to commend, although we are of opinion it has been compiled from temporary materials, and with temporary feelings; while little regard has been paid to general principles, and still less to the facts and experience with which history—and especially the history of our own country—furnishes us. We allow, with Mr. Bowles, that gross delusions were practised on the populace at the late Middlesex election; but we never knew a contest for Middlesex, Westminster, or any place where the electors are numerous, on which occasion the same might not be said. But if Mr. Bowles insists that these popular delusions, riots, and enormities, are 'demonstrative of the progress of Jacobinism,' we must, on our part, insist that neither the agents nor the principals of the French revolution are to blame for the introduction of such a species of Jacobinism. Mr. Bowles cannot hold in greater contempt, than we do, the miserable tricks of a Middlesex election; nor more greatly fear, the probable consequences they may produce among an ignorant and infuriated rabble: but this is not French Jacobinism; nor would it be to repress such excesses that we should decree an interminable war with the French republic. We are old enough to remember Mr. Wilkes's elections for Middlesex; and to remember, also, that they equalled, if they did not exceed, that of last year, in all those proceedings, which Mr. Bowles considers as demonstrative of Jacobinism. If contempt for the person and office of a king, or of *the* king—if the grossest abuse for his councils, of the privileged orders, and of the courts of law—be Jacobinism; if printed libels of the coarsest malevolence deserve this name, we then must maintain, upon a fair comparison between the two cases, that there was far more danger to the constitution and government, to the existence of the constituted authorities, and to the persons of those who held offices under the crown, at the former periods, than on the recent occasion. From this opinion of earlier transactions, we hope we shall escape the imputation of vindicating the proceedings detailed in this pamphlet. Nothing, indeed, can be further from the intention, or general tenor, of our journal: but we certainly wish to recur, as much as possible, to the more calm and temperate opinions of former times; and not, by the retention of a nick-name, to foster a perpetual animosity between man and man, and especially against a whole nation.

Another reason why we would refer our present feelings and indig-

nation against election-abuses to the experience of past-days, is that whatever enormities have been committed, or delusions practised, they have ever been of short duration: a Middlesex election is not a thing to alarm a whole nation; a great part of its machinery is the mob; and so fickle is this instrument, that no demagogue, be his designs good or evil, can repose with security on it. Never was there a mob more excited to public outrage, or better tutored in every kind of contempt for government, than that which placed Wilkes in the civic chair, and made him the representative for Middlesex; yet that very mob, whether electors or not, in a few short years rejected him with contempt; and, *Jacobins* as they were, returned to those principles of loyalty which placed the late administration in their seats, in defiance of the strongest parliamentary opposition ever known, and in contempt of all that remained of the disaffection produced by the American war.

In reviewing the Middlesex election, Mr. Bowles's object is to prove that sir Francis Burdett is a Jacobin of the worst class; but the evidence produced is so directly personal, and depends so much on inference and construction, that we shall not enter into a detail. The following passage may suffice as a specimen.

‘Other parts of the hon. baronet’s address evince a daring hostility to the person of his sovereign, and to the British monarchy. He says he stands “upon a rock from which he cannot be removed by any hired magistrates, parliaments, or kings.” This forced, unnatural, and audacious introduction of the term *kings*, with so insulting an epithet as that which is prefixed to it, must rouse the indignation of every one who has a spark of loyalty in his breast, in such a manner, as to render any particular reprehension of it unnecessary. A subsequent sentence fairly warrants the construction, that the overthrow of the monarchy is the real object of the writer. He says, “I had much rather that my children and posterity should be poor, in a free and flourishing country, than rich in an enslaved and impoverished kingdom.” Without adverting to the epithets in this passage, it is impossible not to be forcibly struck by the distinction, here made, between the words *country*—and *kingdom*. If this antithesis be not meant to imply a revolution, substituting a republic in the place of the monarchical constitution of Great Britain, a revolution has taken place in language, equal to any which has occurred in the political establishments, or moral feelings, of mankind.’ p. 47.

Such language, on the part of the candidate, we deem indefensible; but, as the general conduct of the election is about to be examined by a superior tribunal, perhaps it would have been decent for Mr. Bowles, as well as ourselves, to have reserved such facts, if they can be proved, to a posterior time.

Among other topics collaterally introduced, are many excellent sentiments on the abuses of popular elections, and on the general corruption of morals among all classes; and an elaborate defence of the conduct of Mr. Aris, the governor of the county jail. Two circumstances seem to be fully established from this last subject: the one—that Mr. Mainwaring would not have lost his election, if he had not protected Mr. Aris: the other, that Mr. Aris would have needed no protection, if some of his tenants had not been persons suspected of treasonable practices.

ART. 18.—*State of Things for 1803; in a Dialogue between the Old Year and the New Year.* 12mo. 6d. Hatchard 1803.

This dialogue, between the old and new year, is conducted with a decorum becoming personages so nearly connected, one of whom is just expiring, and the other about to enter on certain very important functions. The new year, young and ignorant, applies to his predecessor for a correct state of public affairs, that he may know how to employ his time with advantage; and is accordingly instructed in many particulars, which, we presume, he had no other means of knowing; such as the prevalence of party spirit—the ambition of Bonaparte—the anxiety of the war-party, in the house of commons, to get into office; which, says the old year, ‘depend upon it, they never will.’ The young gentleman is also told, that, although Jacobinism and unitarianism are on the decline, still the true interests of Christianity are obstructed by the intolerant principles of churchmen and of dissenters; but that, nevertheless, ‘there is good reason to believe that the number of genuine believers is neither small nor declining.’ And, with respect to the state of morals, the old year is of opinion, that, ‘though the kingdoms of Satan and of Christ have severally gained upon each other, in different directions, the balance is in favour of the latter.’ The other topics of information are the publication of Sunday newspapers; the abolition of the slave-trade, which the new year was weak enough to think had taken place; bull-baiting; cock-fighting; an elaborate encomium on the character of miss Hannah More, somewhat out of place—though her friends probably wish it may be handed down from year to year; and a hit at the eagerness of our nobility to visit the court of the Tuilleries. These things almost frighten the new year from his purpose: but the old one leaves him, with a suitable prayer, to enter on his career.—Such are the contents of this little tract, in which the sentiments are, in general, just, moderate, and suited to the times. It may, probably, be dispersed with advantage.

ART. 19.—*A few broad Hints, submitted to the Consideration of those whom it may concern, respecting the Profit and Loss of a War, so often and confidently called just and necessary.* 8vo. 6d. Jordan. 1802.

These hints consist entirely of an extract on the trade of Portugal, from a book usually called ‘Burke’s European Settlements,’ and which is now become obsolete; a description of Amazon and Amazonia, from Brookes’s Gazetteer; and a passage from Dr. Robertson’s America, on the fertility of Guiana. The object of the publication seems to be, to prove that the loss of Portugal was occasioned by our seeking conquests in Egypt: but this is very obscurely conveyed; and the epithet ‘broad’ is ill applied to hints of which it is so difficult to find out the meaning.

ART. 20.—*The Importance of Malta to Great Britain, as a naval and military Station, considered.* By George Orr, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Ginger. 1803.

This subject has often occurred to us; and we have as often given

our opinion on it. Mr. Orr does not differ from us; but we find no new or striking argument in favour of our retaining that island. In reality, the subject lies within a small compass, and cannot easily be expanded.

ART. 21.—*A Letter addressed to the Citizens of London and Westminster: suggesting Improvements in the Police; congenial with the Principles of Freedom and the Constitution.* By T. Colpitts. 8vo. 1s. Jones. 1803.

This author agrees with Mr. Colquhoun, in his objections to the practice of *substitutes* for parish offices; but differs very materially from that gentleman in every other point regarding the reformation of the police. Mr. Colquhoun would establish, by means of a long series of boards and officers, a kind of French police, such as existed in France before the revolution. Mr. Colpitts would begin his reformation, by dismissing those retainers of office known by the name of *runners*, and placing the whole active police in the hands of the citizens at large, *annually chosen*. Upon the whole, we think his scheme preferable to that of Mr. Colquhoun; but, in both, there are some regulations which appear to us impracticable; or, to say the least, inefficient.

NOTTINGHAM ELECTION.

ART. 22.—*Ten Letters, principally upon the Subject of the late contested Election at Nottingham.* 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1803.

Few things can be less connected with the purpose of a literary journal, than the local contests to which elections give rise: yet, as these are usually the rebound of a general party-spirit, they become, in some degree, interesting to the nation at large; and will, hereafter, mark the manners and sentiments of our turbulent times. These 'Ten Letters' have passed between a Mr. Davison and a Mr. Maddock. Mr. Davison accuses Mr. Maddock of having aspersed his character, and represented him as 'an enemy to government.' Mr. Maddock endeavours to explain and apologise; but Mr. Davison becomes more irritated; and, whatever his principles or conduct may be, certainly betrays a most irascible disposition. His defence of the Nottingham election has been, by this time, *reviewed* by a higher tribunal.

ART. 23.—*A Letter to Mr. Robert Davison, Worsted Spinner, Arnold.* By Mr. Alexander Foxcroft, Attorney at Law, Nottingham, with the Reply of the Former thereto. 8vo. 6d. Jordan. 1803.

Mr. Foxcroft, conceiving himself alluded to in what Mr. Davison asserted respecting the petition to the house of commons, addresses Mr. Davison on the subject. Mr. Davison, with his usual warmth, repeats the accusation in these words:—

'Robert Davison, worsted spinner of Arnold Mill, near Nottingham, chargeth Alexander Foxcroft, attorney, with having practised deceit of the most dishonourable and disgraceful species, in procuring

signatures, not to a certain petition, but which he afterwards affixed to a certain petition.' p. 27.

ART. 24.—*A Letter to John Bowles, Esq. on the Subjects of his two Pamphlets lately published and entitled, Thoughts on the late general Election, as demonstrative of the Progress of Jacobinism, And a Letter addressed to the honourable Charles James Fox, in Consequence of his Speech in the House of Commons, on the Character of the late most noble Francis Duke of Bedford, &c. &c. 8vo. 4d. Jordan. 1803.*

Mr. Bowles had asserted in his 'Thoughts, &c.' that the electors of Nottingham, in the interest of Mr. Birch, had 'displayed the tree of liberty and the French national tri-coloured flag; had sung revolutionary songs, and vented the most horrid imprecations against their sovereign; and had formed a procession, in the true style of Gallic Jacobinism, in which a female, representing the goddess of reason, in a state of ENTIRE NUDITY, was a conspicuous figure.' According to Mr. Davison's account, Mr. Bowles, who had been applied to for proof of these enormities, answered to the following purport:—'That he had employed persons on whose veracity he could rely; that he was positively assured the birch bough was meant to represent the tree of liberty; that, if there were not a woman entirely naked in the procession, there was one drest in *flesh* colour; that the twenty-four women, instead of being the sisters and wives of voters, were *common prostitutes*; that many of the men in the procession had the French cockade in their hats, and that the chair was decorated with the same colours; and that the corporation band played revolutionary airs, which were sung by the mob, with variations indicating a *total abhorrence of kings*.'

In answer to these charges, Mr. Davison, in the letter now before us, solemnly declares that 'it is false that any tree, or bough, denominated the tree of liberty, was carried in the procession; false that French cockades were worn, and that Mr. Birch's chair was decorated with the same colours (those which adorned it being dark blue and orange, or yellow—the old whig-colours at Nottingham—mixed with some pink, which was Mr. Birch's own distinguishing colour at Nottingham); false that any revolutionary airs were sung or played; and false that any expression was used, during the procession, which indicated the smallest disrespect, much less a total abhorrence, of kings. He denies, likewise, the woman in the flesh-coloured garment; and undertakes for the character of the other women, who were 'relatives of electors.'—It now remains for Mr. Bowles to retract a little further, if he believe his information out-weighed by Mr. Davison's evidence; and, especially, if he think his character liable to suffer by Mr. Davison's pen.

RELIGION.

ART. 25.—*A Sermon preached in Lambeth Chapel, at the Consecration of the Right Reverend George Isaac Huntingford, D.D. Lord Bishop of Gloucester. By the Reverend William Howley, M.A. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.*

In this discourse, episcopacy and a national establishment are vindi-

ated; and the command of our Saviour, that none of his disciples should usurp an authority over their brethren, is shown to be compatible with the due subordination of ecclesiastical government. The necessity, that the church should receive honours and emoluments, is pointed out, from the difference of the circumstances in which she is now placed, compared with her situation in the apostolical and succeeding age. It is here supposed to be admitted, that 'the extraordinary gifts of the spirit were occasionally continued for a considerable period after the apostolic age'—a point which we are much inclined to call in question, as we do not know a single instance of the kind that is properly authenticated. The argument for the form of episcopacy, maintained by the preacher, labours under the same difficulty; and we should have been much obliged to him for the documents which he asserts to be 'still extant, in which various lines of bishops are traced upwards, in unbroken succession, to the immediate followers of Christ.' The real fact is, that no such succession can be demonstrated: nor is it necessary; for, could it even be ascertained, episcopacy, in England, is of a very different nature from that in the times of the apostles; and no authority can be derived from the discipline of one age and country, in favour of that of another age and country, where circumstances are so materially different. The argument on the succession of the bishops requires an examination of church history: another position of our preacher lies within a narrower compass. 'The system of prelacy, he asserts, was framed by the apostles acting under the influence of the holy spirit.' It may fairly be inquired, what system of prelacy? that of the Moravians, of the church of England, of the church of Rome, or of the independent churches in England? the latter of whom very frequently give to their minister the title of bishop, and consider him as the bishop of their congregation. Now, all these prelaties differ very materially one from the other; and, if a system had been formed by the holy spirit, not only it would be capable of easy reference, but it would be easy to point out which of the above-mentioned prelaties agreed with, and in what circumstances the others differed from it. If the arguments, however, or rather assertions, in this sermon, stand frequently upon a very unstable foundation, the just commendations on the prelates who have done honour to the church, and the judicious admonitions to those who are in possession of dignities, are worthy of the occasion upon which the discourse was delivered; and it is from a succession of worthy characters that a church will be distinguished, and not from the titles by which they have been, in their life-time, adorned.

ART. 26.—*An Essay on the Method of illustrating Scripture from the Relations of modern Travellers in Palestine and the neighbouring Countries. Published, in Pursuance of the Will of the late Mr. Norris, as having gained the annual Prize instituted by him in the University of Cambridge. By John Foster, A. B. &c. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

A prize-exercise is not to be criticised like other performances: nor is the same to be expected from a young man under the degree of master of arts, as from a veteran in the groves of Academus. Yet here is a presage of much future success; and the young writer, who, with

singular modesty, will scarcely call this his own work, since it is largely made up of quotations from others, shows no inconsiderable degree of skill in the arrangement of his materials. We hesitate not to predict, that, if he persevere in his present course, he will acquire, in the most pleasant way, a much greater degree of scriptural knowledge, than is obtained by more abstruse studies. We recommend the work before us to all young divines, as a specimen of the advantage they may derive from bringing every work they read, on the ancient or modern history of eastern countries, to bear upon what ought to be their chief study—that of the Holy Scriptures.

ART. 27.—*The Comparison, or the Gospel, preached unto the Patriarchs, compared with what is now called the Gospel, being the Substance of Thoughts delivered on Galatians iii. v. 8.* By John Coward, at Windmill-Street Chapel, Finsbury-Square. 8vo. 1s. Richardsons. 1803.

The Gospel preached to Abraham was, that in him all nations of the earth should be blessed. The more popular acceptation of the Gospel-creed, now, is—that, so far from all nations of the earth being blessed, a vast majority of mankind shall be for ever rendered miserable. This modern acceptation does not please the writer of the present discourse, who, considering God to be both all-powerful and true to his earliest promises, contends that no actions of man can prevent their fulfilment. Every individual, we are told, proceeding from the loins of Adam, is to be blessed. As the curse extended from him to all mankind, so shall the benediction predicted; and, instead of the wretchedness, sin, and mortality, entailed upon us by the first man, a total change shall succeed by means of the second; and there shall be a complete enjoyment of peace, love, and eternal life. Otherwise, how would death be swallowed up in victory? and where would be the triumph over sin? If multitudes exist to be annihilated, will there then be a complete triumph of death: if multitudes suffer eternal pains, then does there not exist the triumph of sin? Such is our author's argument, who manages it with great judgement, and deserves much attention. It is certain, that neither the terrors of eternal death, nor those of eternal punishment, have been able to preserve man from the temptations and dominion of sin. Were he treated as a nobler being, as certain of living for ever, and as certain of enjoying future happiness—of which, though he do not, by his actions, make himself worthy, yet the purchase is completed for him—would not a full conviction of the inestimable benefit hence procured for him have a great tendency to keep him in the paths of virtue and religion?

ART. 28.—*A Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802: being the Day appointed by his Majesty's Proclamation for a general Thanksgiving to Almighty God for putting an End to the late bloody, extended, and expensive War.* By Henry William, Lord Bishop of Chester. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1802.

In this discourse, it is proved, from history and recent observation,

that God has been pleased to show abundant marks of his particular love for our own nation. The first instance adverted to is, that the Gospel was preached in this island so early as the life-time of St. Paul, though, perhaps, the preacher was not aware, when he introduced this example, that our ancestors were, at that period, wandering in the deserts of Germany, and receiving no benefit from such predication. A vast leap carries us to the Norman invasion, the wars of the barons, and the contests between the houses of York and Lancaster; in which, from the superintending care of God, 'all social order and religious principle' were not extinguished. The reformation was the next signal act of Divine Providence, which was followed by the defeat of the Spanish armada, the discovery of the gunpowder plot, the restoration of king Charles the Second, the protestant succession bill, and 'the preservation of the life of our present most exemplary monarch.'

Recent observation testifies the same superintending care in the late 'tremendous revolution,' which is to be ascribed, 'not to the intrigues of statesmen, but to the closets of philosophers; not to the encroachments on civil liberty, but to the insidious corruption of religious and moral principles.' We here find the usual mistake of confounding all the writings of the neighbouring country, and of not recollecting against what an abominable mass of superstition many of them were levelled; nor of making the allowance, that Divine Providence employs the instrumentality of one class of wicked men, to confound the devices of another. We have been fighting, according to the preacher, 'for the defence and preservation of our pure religion and excellent constitution, which, on the strictest Christian principles, are justifiable, and even commendable, motives of warfare.' In this warfare, we have been blessed with 'three decided victories over the three separate fleets of our coalesced enemies;' with an increase, also, in our commerce and wealth, and an improvement in our agriculture; with the preservation of the constitution uninjured, the union with Ireland, and additional stability to our institutions, civil and ecclesiastical.

For these blessings, we are bound to show our gratitude, by corresponding manners; and, with 'a true spirit of Christian charity, to allay all political factions which may endanger the state, as well as to counteract that religious schism which has, of late, so much disgraced and enervated the church.' Our thanks, also, are due to the heroic men who stood forward in 'the cause of Christianity and social order;' and, next to

'the King of kings and Lord of lords, let our thanks be referred to the beloved monarch whom God, in his great mercy, hath long continued the protector of our church and state. To his piety and magnanimity, to his approved love of our civil constitution, and his inflexible determination to preserve the protestant establishment as it was solemnly committed to his care, are we deeply indebted for the happiness we now enjoy. May the rest of his reign be undisturbed by hostile aggression or intestine discontent! Protect him, O Lord, from all dangers! Keep him as the apple of an eye; hide him under the shadow of thy wings! Sooth all his cares, and prosper his benevolent exertions for the welfare of his people! And, when it shall be thy

good pleasure to remove him from his earthly throne, grant that, full of years and good works, he may receive a crown of glory, incorruptible, that fadeth not away, eternal in the heavens!' P. 19.

ART. 29.—*A Sermon for the first Day of June, 1802, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving for Peace. By R. Potter, A. M. &c. 4to. 1s. Longman and Rees.*

Universal benevolence and love are here recommended: but, in comparing the truths of philosophy with those of revelation, the term *religionist* is applied to him who draws his rule of life from the Holy Scriptures. We should not have expected the use of this term, in such a sense, from so learned a pen: but it is evidently an oversight; and the general merits of this discourse cannot be impaired by so slight a defect.

ART. 30.—*The Blessings of Peace: a Sermon, delivered at Bridge-Street-Chapel, Bristol; on Tuesday the 1st of June, 1802; being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By Samuel Lowell. 8vo. 1s. Williams.*

'The following discourse was not originally intended for publication. It was, however, favourably received from the pulpit, and the author has yielded to the earnest solicitations of his friends in permitting it to pass through the press.

'He is aware that the partiality of friendship in some, affords no security against the severity of criticism from others; but as the sermon is strictly an hasty performance, he trusts it will be perused with candour.' P. iii.

ART. 31.—*Letters on the Existence and Character of the Deity, and on the moral State of Man. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

The pious benevolent intentions of the author are fully conspicuous: he pretends not to novelty: but, in this age of skepticism and infidelity, every serious well-intentioned work is highly valuable. Yet, as many of the arguments are taken from the sacred writings, the infidel, who denies their authority, will be blind to their force. From arguments like those of Dr. Paley, where the author rises 'from nature to nature's God,' skepticism can have no subterfuge.

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 32.—*An Inquiry into the Efficacy of Oxygene in the Cure of Syphilis. To which are subjoined a few general Observations on its Application in various other Disorders. By Charles Platt, F. M. S. 8vo. 2s. Mawman. 1802.*

Our very candid and judicious author, observing the opposite reports of the efficacy of oxygenated remedies—remedies which his own experience does not support—is induced to think that they may have been tried in diseases not venereal, and adduces some apparently of this kind. Such we have indeed seen; but, whatever may have been the temporary effects of tonics, many of the disorders described appear,

however, to have been truly venereal. Yet it is highly proper to start the idea, and leave it to future inquiry. One circumstance must be considered—*viz.* that venereal sores will remain in an irritable state, from the action of mercury alone, after the infection has been completely destroyed. In these instances, tonics will appear to cure.

The aërial remedies, in other disorders, are not favourites with our author. His arguments are judicious and striking, but perhaps not sufficiently compacted to enforce conviction. They are somewhat too general and declamatory.

ART. 33.—*Remarks on the Necessity and Means of suppressing Contagious Fever in the Metropolis; by C. Stanger, M.D. &c. 12mo. 1s. Phillips. 1802.*

We are glad to see this benevolent plan begun and honourably supported. We wish it still further success; and have little doubt, in this age of charity, of its obtaining every encouragement. The 'means' are those employed at Manchester and Liverpool.

ART. 34.—*Facts and Observations respecting the Air-Pump Vapour-Bath, in Gout, Rheumatism, Palsy, and other Diseases. By Ralph Blegborough, M.D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Lackington. 1803.*

It was a simple and ingenious deduction from the fact of sucking out poison inflicted by a wound, to employ a machine which may, perhaps, be properly styled an immense cupping-glass. To abstract the pressure of the air will undoubtedly promote the action of the extreme vessels, and probably relieve the obstructions which take place in the diseases mentioned in the title, as well as in some others for which it is proposed. The addition of vapour will increase the effects. The whole subject is explained with equal judgement and candor; and we wish the very ingenious mechanic, who contrived the machine, his well-merited rewards. We have little doubt of its advantages; and we will give him a satisfactory reason, without, however, meaning to convey the slightest reflexion on his ingenuity—we employed a machine, in diseases of the knee, not very unlike this before us, more than thirty years since, with good success. The air was not, however, previously exhausted by a piston, but by heat.

EDUCATION.

ART. 35.—*Mentorial Tales, for the Instruction of young Ladies just leaving School and entering upon the Theatre of Life; by Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 4s. Bound. Harris. 1802.*

Persuaded as we are that the impressions made by fiction are very transitory, it is with regret that we observe instruction so frequently, or rather so universally, attempted to be conveyed through this medium. While, however, it continues to be the favourite, both with teachers and scholars, we have only to estimate the comparative value of the many productions of the kind which come before us. In this

respect, we think very highly of the present work : it seems ingeniously and pleasingly calculated to answer the best purposes of fictitious narrative ; and the subjects are of the highest importance to young ladies, at the period of life specified in the title. Of the eight tales in this volume, we would recommend, for their superior excellence, ' the amiable Mother-in-law,' ' Confidence in Parents,' and ' the amiable Artist.' With a dash of the romantic, there is, yet, in these tales, much good sense, and knowledge of the world ' as it is.'

ART. 36.—*Improvements in Education, as it respects the industrious Classes of the Community: containing a short Account of its present State, Hints towards its Improvement, and a Detail of some practical Experiments conducive to that End. By Joseph Lancaster. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1803.*

The author is master of a school of three hundred boys, whom he educates in a particular manner ; the basis of which is reward, not flagellation—honour, not fear. His plan he has imparted freely to the public, and it is deserving of the highest commendation. We trust that all who are employed in the education of youth will find their time well bestowed in reading these few pages ; and, though the plan have hitherto been adopted in only what is called an inferior seminary, its utility extends to the highest ; and the masters of Eton, Westminster, and Winchester, may hence derive some very important lessons, which will secure the progress of their scholars, and preserve their schools from insurrections and rebellions. Mr. Lancaster holds out to us the prospect of further improvements ; and, from this specimen, we cannot doubt that they will be attended with honour to himself, and advantage to the public. The guardians of the poor will find many very useful hints in this publication.

ART. 37.—*English Composition, in a Method entirely new, with various short contrasted Examples, from celebrated Writers, the whole adapted to common Capacities, and designed as an easy Help to form a good Style, and to acquire a Taste for the Works of the best Authors. By the Rev. G. G. Scraggs. To which are added, An Essay on the Advantages of understanding Composition, and a List of select Books for English Readers, with Remarks. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Bound. Symonds, 1802.*

Many useful remarks are made, in this work, on composition. The examples are well chosen ; and, by observing the faults frequently committed by our best writers, the learner will easily correct those which every speaker and writer is apt to commit, unless he be particularly attentive to the rules of grammar and syntax.

ART. 38.—*The young Lady's Assistant, or an easy Introduction to English Grammar. By Elizabeth Bellamy. 12mo. 1s. Bound. Vernor and Hood. 1802.*

This is rather an abridgement of grammar, than an assistant to it.

As designed for the use of young ladies, we here meet with a great many hard words, which ought to be exchanged for words of our own language.

ART. 39.—*The Scholar's orthographical and orthoëpical Assistant; or English Exercise-Book, on an improved Plan. Intended for the Use of Schools; and for the general Correction of Provincial or Foreign Inaccuracies of Pronunciation. By Thomas Carpenter. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Bound. Hurst. 1803.*

The words are, in general, well divided. Proper marks are used to distinguish the two sounds of *g* & *g*, as well as to discriminate the sound of *ch*; and Italics are employed for those letters which are not sounded. The exercises at the end of the book will be found very useful in all schools, as the learner may enter a few lines on one side of his writing-book, and on the opposite side insert them in their corrected form—an exercise which will inevitably rectify all vicious spelling.

ART. 40.—*Practical Arithmetic, or the Definitions and Rules in whole Numbers, Fractions, Vulgar and Decimal, exemplified by a large Collection of Questions relating to Business; including Rules and Examples of mental Calculations, and Abbreviations in most Parts of Arithmetic: the whole combining Theory with Practice. With Notes. Adapted to the Use of young Ladies as well as young Gentlemen. By J. Richards. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Bound. Seeley. 1803.*

The writer, we are happy to see, is an advocate for mental arithmetic, by which a learner's progress is very much advanced. He continues the multiplication-table to nineteen, and gives a number of useful examples to each rule.

POETRY.

ART. 41.—*The Horrors of Bribery; a penitential Epistle, from Philip Hamlin, Tinman, to the Right Hon. H. Addington, Prime-Minister. To which is added a Postscript; containing sensible Animadversions on Judge Grose's solemn and serious Address to the unfortunate Tinman. Edited by Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dean. 1802.*

Another star glitters above the horizon! another Cynthia discloses a radiant beam! and Peter is alive to share its illumination or its inspiration. Yet we occasionally suspect, that, in his eagerness to write, he sometimes mistakes an *ignis fatuus* for this same bright star of the minute, and is, of course, led astray by the suspicion of inspiration only; and, in this instance, a reflected beam from the brilliant copper—a beam, perhaps, issuing originally from the kitchen fire—may have had a similar effect; for we find not a single trace of the *divine aura*; not a particle of 'gold' is discoverable, in *stercore Esau*, in the Pindaric dust. Mr. Pitt, Lord Rolle, and Madame Schwellenberg,

the usual ingredients, are again introduced to make up a show. The introductory lines, where the epistle from Eloïsa to Abelard was in the author's view, are by much the best.

' From those hard walls, amidst whose awful round,
The ear with horror feels the clanking chain;
Where sighs from hollow vaults unpitied sound,
And tears of bitterest anguish stream in vain ;

' Where, faint and fasten'd to th' unfeeling floor,
The wretch desponding mourns amid his gloom ;
Expecting Death's dread hand t'unbolt his door,
And lead him half alive into the tomb, &c. P. 1.

The remainder chiefly consists of Mr. Hamlin's lamentations, in the Devonshire dialect. They are, in every sense, most lamentable strains.

The remarks on judge Grose's solemn address will amuse some of our readers, who will not perhaps conclude, with the learned lord, that bribery is uncommon, or held in abhorrence, because the attempts are so seldom publicly prosecuted.

ART. 42.—*A Medico-Metrical Address to the Students at the University of Edinburgh. Containing characteristic Sketches of the Medical Professors in that celebrated School. Part II. By Lemuel Lancet, Esq. 8vo. 6d. Jordan. 1802.*

The first part was not to us highly attractive ; and, in the second, the Muse is often miserably lame. Smarting, as we are, under the severity of Dr. Lettsom and Co. we cannot even smile at the ludicrous ' apotheosis of Jenner the great,' or the ' ambling *Pegasus* for Jenner to ride.' We trust, however, that we shall not remain long in debt.

DRAMA.

ART. 43.—*Delays and Blunders: a Comedy, in five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1803.*

Mr. Reynolds's comedies are at least a proof of his industry : what they contribute to the dramatic character of the age, we are almost afraid to ask ; but the incessant demand for novelty, on the part of the public, imposes on the managers the necessity of being not over-scrupulous. The present drama exhibits a mixture of mawkish sentiment and broad farce, between which, our author seems to know no medium. On the stage, it may have contributed to merriment ; but the incidents are grossly extravagant and improbable, the characters drawn in hideous disproportion, and without keep or colouring, while the dialogue is neither natural nor appropriate. Among other vulgarities, the very frequent repetition of *damme*, in this comedy, is highly reprehensible. We are surprised that it should be tolerated on the stage, and more surprised that it should find its way to the press.

ART. 44.—*The Wife of a Million, a Comedy, in five Acts, as performed by His Majesty's Servants of the Theatres-Royal, Norwich, Lincoln and Canterbury. By Francis Lathom.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

The 'Wife of a Million' is one who disguises herself in male apparel, to detect her husband in his gallantries; this is a character by no means new in the world of fiction; and the rest of the *dramatis personæ* are such as we meet with every day. The plot, without being intricate, has enough of the marvelous to please the reigning taste; and, although this play have not been honoured with a place on the London theatres, it may rank, in point of merit, with some late attempts which the town has encouraged.

NOVELS.

ART. 45.—*Monckton: or, the Fate of Eleanor. A Novel. To which is prefixed, a general Defence of modern Novels.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

There is nothing peculiarly great or particularly low in this performance. It would be flattery to rank it among the best, and it would be unjust to place it in the list of the worst, of our novels. With the allotment of mediocrity, therefore, the author must rest content.

Perhaps to one who undertakes the defence of this species of writing, the reader may think more should be due: yet the defence is not one that will serve the cause. We know that a good novel is a useful publication; but the quarrel which men of sense have with these books is, that they are published more frequently, by a hundred fold, than is necessary, and elucidate a hundred fold more variations in the passions of love, of which principally they treat, than those by which it suffers itself to be modified: consequently, they are repeated imitations one of another, even the best of them. Unfortunately for reviewers, we are obliged to read the bad as well as the good, the former of which exceed the latter at least twenty to one. By these, the precious hours of our young countrywomen are engrossed; and yet they contain the most outrageous violations of style, of grammar, and of common sense.

ART. 46.—*Ariana and Maud. A Novel. By Marian Moore.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Lane and Newman. 1803.

This novel is, on the whole, amusing, but the incidents too much in the common strain to interest greatly. There is scarcely an event which we have not before witnessed, nor an escape which has not had a hundred prototypes. These volumes will, however, beguile a tedious moment, without an improper lesson or a bad example. Perhaps Ariana should not have indulged the violent predilection for Charles Falkner; but her judgement and good sense almost expiate the error. We fear, indeed, that the former part may be adopted, while the reader loses sight of the other. At least the ideal attachment is carried too far.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 47.—*A few Ideas on highly interesting Subjects: well worthy the Attention of every Person of Taste, who takes Delight in the fine Arts, and in elegant Amusement. By a Lover of the Arts.* 8vo. 6d. Ridgeway. 1802.

This author's ideas are twofold:—In the first place, instead of a statue to the late duke of Bedford or Mr. Pitt, he would propose a handsome folio volume of a few sheets, with an engraved portrait of the personage to be thus honoured, and a characteristic encomium written in several languages. In the second place, and which seems his favourite object, he proposes to honour the memory of the late duke of Bedford, not only by a statue in the centre of Russel-square, but by the institution, in that square, of annual *poney-races*! If these *ideas* are adopted, he assures us that 'they will be instrumental to render the metropolis of England, far more than it now is, the first city in the world for ingenious artists and splendid recreations.' We have read many schemes for the improvement of the *fine arts*, but none in which the author has so ably combined the interests of engravers, painters, and ponies.

ART. 48.—*Remarks on Imprisonment for Debt, on the recent Progress of the Law, and increase of Lawyers. Dedicated to the Earl of Maitru.* 8vo. 1s. Burton. 1803.

This is a more furious invective against law and lawyers than we have ever met with; but, like many similar productions of anger and intemperance, has a tendency to defeat its own purpose. Some truths are told, and some abuses pointed out, which merit attention; but exaggeration is so obvious in other passages, that the reader may justly suspect the accuracy of the whole.

ART. 49.—*A Dictionary of the Wonders of Nature. Translated principally from the Works of A. S. S. Delafond, Professor of Physic at Bourges. With considerable Additions from Original Manuscripts. Including every important Phenomenon in Nature, philosophically and physically explained. Forming the most curious Collection of the Wonders of Nature ever published. The whole Alphabetically arranged: together with a complete Index.* 12mo. 5s. Boards. Hurst. 1803.

The compilers of this work assure us, in the preface, that 'they have been careful to advance nothing but on the most respectable authorities;' an assertion which, we are afraid, must not be understood in its literal meaning. Authorities innumerable may be produced, for the grossest fictions that ever were obtruded on the public in times of comparative ignorance and credulity; but, when they are repeated in the commencement of the nineteenth century, we cannot find that *respectability* which commands belief. Indeed a very great proportion of the contents of this work are ridiculous stories current in the fifteenth

and sixteenth centuries, the publication of which is pernicious, as far as they can be supposed to deceive the present generation of readers. Here is a healthy girl, who lived five years without any nourishment—a girl of nine years old delivered of a boy—another born *alive*, without head, heart, lungs, arms, diaphragm, liver, spleen, &c.—women delivered of thornbacks, rabbits, bunches of eggs, &c.—an extraordinary eater, who devoured a writing-desk, covered with iron plates, with pens, penknife, sand, and inkstand—a Russian peasant, who had fifty-seven children by one wife, all alive, and fifteen by a second—one giant forty-nine feet in length, and another sixty-nine—a chicken with a human countenance—a dog with the head of a turkey-cock—wills taken by a woman, which, by the force of imagination, purged the husband also—a brain-fever which brought on fits of making verses.—Those who wish to study ‘the Wonders of Nature’ in such relations and by such proofs, will find, in this work, abundance of matter to excite surprise and play upon credulity. It is but justice to add, however, that some articles, translated from Delafond, are calculated to excite a proper interest in the phenomena of nature.

ART. 50.—*A Remonstrance against Inhumanity to Animals, and particularly against the savage Practice of Bull-Baiting.* By Percival Stockdale. 8vo. 1s. Seeley. 1802.

This remonstrance is rather declamatory; but the practice against which the author inveighs, cannot perhaps be combated by too many weapons. His appeals to the feelings are sometimes very forcible; and the instances he gives of some late bull-batings are too atrocious not to aid his humane efforts with great effect.—This pamphlet is dedicated to the electors of Norwich; and it is perhaps needless to add, that the character of their late representative is deeply involved in the discussion.

ART. 51.—*A Letter to His Majesty, and one to Her Majesty.* By Mr. Brothers. Also, a Poem, with a Dissertation on the Fall of Eve. And an Address to five eminent Counselors. 8vo. 2s. Riebau. 1802.

The ravings of Mr. Brothers have been long known to the public; and his having now taken a poetical turn will not be thought to afford much hope of amendment. In this pamphlet the reader will find examples both of poetry and prose run stark mad; but the search will, undoubtedly, be a waste both of time and money.

ART. 52.—*Hints to Consumers of Wine: on the Abuses which enhance the Price of that Article: their Nature and Remedy.* By James Walker. 8vo. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

The hints before us merit every regard: *experti loquimur*; for the plan we have many years followed. The object is to import old wine of the first quality, that it may not lie long in the wood, in this country, to shrink in quantity, and to waste by depositing lees. Let the consumer, then, keep it in his own cellar for use. Even at this time, the best wine will not, in this way, cost more than thirty shillings per dozen.

ART. 53.—*Miscellanea Nova; containing, amidst a Variety of other Matters curious and interesting, Remarks on Boswell's Johnson; with considerable Additions, and some new Anecdotes of that extraordinary Character: a Critique on Bürger's Leonora; in which she is clearly proved of English Extraction; and an Introductory Essay on the Art of Reading and Speaking in Public, in two Parts. By S. Whyte, and his Son, E. A. Whyte. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Boards. Dublin. 1801.*

Light table-talk, occasionally amusing, but too vague and desultory to interest or greatly entertain. We remember a similar collection from the elder Mr. Whyte, of the same complexion—*alter et idem*.

ART. 54.—*The Englishman's Letters relative to the Trade between Great-Britain and the East-Indies. In which the exclusive Rights of the East-India Company, and the Rights of the private Merchants, under the Act of 1793, are discussed. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1802.*

The author's object, in these letters, he has himself explained, and we shall employ his own words.

‘My plan, in the letters which I shall take the liberty of addressing to you in future, is to inquire dispassionately into the nature of the private trade; to trace it from its origin to the present time; to consider its consequences both in India and England; to examine whether the regulations and restraints which the court of directors formed and imposed upon it, from time to time, were wise and necessary, or injudicious and impolitic; to take a view of the situation of the trade of foreign nations, and to investigate the rights, and privileges, and interest of our own Company. In a word, I mean to enter into so full a discussion of this subject of private trade, as shall bring the whole of it fairly before you, and enable you, if my ability (with the assistance of my friends) prove equal to my intention, to judge of its good or ill effects on your affairs, and whether you should join with your directors in suppressing it, or comply with the petition of the merchants in encouraging it on a wise and liberal scale.’ P. 4.

Our author, of course, prefers a free trade, which would not injure the company as merchants, and be highly beneficial to them as sovereigns. Undoubtedly argument is on the same side; but on which is private interest and power?—The decision will answer the question.

ART. 55.—*Sexual Morality. By a Gentleman. 12mo. 3s. Wallis. 1802.*

The late revolution in sentiments and manners, originating in a neighbouring kingdom, has produced a corresponding one in what is here called ‘sexual morality.’ Mrs. Wollstonecraft’s work contained the principles, and became the code, of this new system. The great source of the French revolution, and the leading principle of the change in our system of sexual morality, is the infidelity of the modern

Frenchmen; and on this subject our author enlarges with success, tracing its various ramifications with sufficient precision. He then proceeds to point out the precepts and maxims of sexual morality in different situations. His statements, however, are so diffuse, and his manner so vague, that it is not easy to follow him; and, in some instances, were there any display of abilities in the work, we should suspect him to be an enemy in disguise. Of this, indeed, we must ultimately acquit him; but his descriptions are too partial and free, and we perceive little judgement in any of the laws promulgated in this work.

ART. 56.—*Candid Observations on Mrs. H. More's Schools: in which is considered their supposed Connection with Methodism. Recommended to the Attention of the Public in general; and particularly to the Clergy. By the Rev. ———. 8vo. 9d. Hatchard. 1802.*

This writer vindicates the propriety of schools for children; in which every one will join him. Though he views methodism with a more favourable eye than will be generally acceptable, yet his advice is sound—that persons should be on their guard against indiscriminate charges of methodism, lest they drive many worthy members of the establishment into that very error which they peculiarly reprobate. In the case of the schools, he does not seem sufficiently aware of the necessity of their being confined to teachers of the established church, under its authorised ministers.

ART. 57.—*The Force of Contrast continued: or Extracts and Animadversions. With occasional Strictures on the Contraster and others of Mr. Beré's Opponents. And Observations on the Effects of Mrs. H. More's Schools. To which is added, a Postscript, on the Editors of the British Critic. Respectfully submitted to the Consideration of those who have interested themselves in the Blagdon Controversy. By a Friend of the Establishment. 8vo. 2s. Hurst. 1802.*

He must have great patience and resolution who can wade through these prolix remarks on the Blagdon controversy.

ART. 58.—*A Review of the Anti-Jacobin, Critical, and Monthly Reviews, with some preliminary Remarks on the Origin, Advantages, Disadvantages, and Importance of Literary Journals, extracted from the Christian Observer. With a few Additions and Alterations. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1803.*

The intention of this unfortunate gentleman is to cry down three reviews, in consequence, perhaps, of having formed a connexion with a fourth. For ourselves, we pity the assistance he seems capable of affording to any, and laugh at the resentment displayed in his present pamphlet.

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

APRIL, 1803.

ART. I.—*Journal of the late Campaign in Egypt; including Descriptions of that Country, and of Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Marmorice, and Macri; with an Appendix; containing Official Papers and Documents: by Thomas Walsh, Captain in his Majesty's Ninety-Third Regiment of Foot, &c. Illustrated by numerous Engravings of Antiquities, Views, Costumes, Plans, Positions, &c. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.*

THIS tale has been so often told, that, without novelty of event or of language, it must disgust. We meet, in the volume before us, with little of either: as a journal, it is, perhaps, still less interesting than Mr. Anderson's, and, as a military history, greatly inferior to sir Robert Wilson's work. Yet, in some respects, it rises considerably above both; we mean, on account of its valuable plans and maps. One *consideratum* in former works of this kind is here supplied; viz. a map of Malta. Had it appeared before, it might have saved us no small trouble. To conclude, however, the subject of these useful and ornamental appendages, we may remark that they are very unequal. The coloured plates, though striking and characteristic, are inelegant daubings. The views, on the whole, are satisfactory, though, in some instances, defective: the charts, the maps and plans of the different actions, almost unexceptionably meritorious. The plates are numerous, amounting, in the whole, to forty-nine subjects, in thirty-five plates.

As the title imports, the work is a journal of the campaign, from the period of sailing from Gibraltar, to the conclusion of the war in Egypt, which formed its theatre; to which is added a short account of that singular country, and of the pyramids, collected in a tour to Cairo. Each bay and island claims a share of the author's attention; and, of Malta, the historical account is somewhat too extensive and hackneyed. We know not the precise object which engages the attention of our government in the present dispute: yet it may be worth observing, that, since, in our new commercial regulations,

the want of a free port, like Leghorn, will be severely felt, Malta may, perhaps, supply its place. The island of Elba was undoubtedly the spot for an emporium of this kind; and its port would contain the whole navy of England. It was, however, not to be dispensed with by the Italian republic; and, we believe, was resigned, with great reluctance, by our ministers. Malta is undoubtedly too distant: but the advantages, lost by Spain and the western coast of Italy, in consequence of this situation, are compensated by its vicinity to the Asiatic coast, the Grecian islands, and the eastern shores of Italy. We strongly suspect that the advantages of Malta, in this view, have not been sufficiently considered. They have, however, been placed in a train where they will claim more attention than in these pages; and may, perhaps, supersede the projected purchase of Sardinia, whose harbour is by no means equal to that of Porto Ferrajo, or of Malta. In the shifting politics of the present day, all is, nevertheless, uncertain; and Malta may still be resigned, before these observations can find their way from the press.

It is time to leave speculation, and to follow our author and the forces. The first interesting passage that we meet, is the picturesque description of the Bay of Marmorice.

‘ The entrance into this singularly beautiful haven, which is sufficiently spacious to contain all the navy of Great Britain, is, as I before observed, narrow, lying between two ranges of steep mountains, that extend to the sea shore. From this the view opens at once upon a sheet of unruffled water, nearly twenty miles in circumference, surrounded by lofty hills, rising one above the other like an amphitheatre, most of them thickly covered with trees, composing the richest variety of shades, and reaching down to the very edge of the water, into which some of them actually dip their pendent branches. In other parts of the surrounding scenery, huge masses of rock, broken and rugged, with scarcely a sign of vegetation on them, project into the water, varying the scene, and adding considerably to it's wild sublimity; while beyond the woody hills prodigious masses of barren mountains appear, rising one above the other in pleasing confusion, with here and there scattered clumps of trees, climbing almost to the top.

‘ To attempt describing all the varieties of this immense scenery of wood and mountain, where every change of position gives a new outline and fresh tints to please the eye, would be a vain effort; but the view is most particularly beautiful and sublime, when, on a calm evening, the rays of the setting sun, throwing over the surrounding scenery a rich and glossy stream of light, display a magnificence beyond the utmost stretch of fancy, and equally above the delineation of the pencil.’ p. 45.

The town and castle of Marmorice, with the adjacent mountains, are represented in a plate. We forgot to re-

mark, that, in treating of Rhodes, our author follows the ancient fable, in supposing the celebrated Colossus to have stood at the entrance of the harbour, with one leg on each shore; though it is much more probable that this famous statue of the sun was *near* the harbour only, at some distance from the sea.

In the gulf of Macri, our author describes and delineates the remains of the ancient amphitheatre at Telmessus. The town, from the extent of these remains, might, in his opinion, have contained from about twenty to twenty-five thousand inhabitants.

We shall not follow him in the voyage to Egypt, or in the eventful actions of the 13th and the 21st of March. We see little added to, or different from, former accounts; and the narrative is by no means so clear and explicit, as that in sir Robert Wilson's work. Perhaps we have not understood the nature and constitution of the dromedary corps, so well as it is explained in the following passage.

'The French had been followed, ever since they left El Och, by a body of seven or eight hundred Arabs on horseback, who annoyed them excessively, and prevented their sending out reconnoitring parties, as these, once separated from the main body, would soon have fallen a sacrifice to their inveterate animosity. The regiment of dromedaries had been a very useful corps to the French. It was composed of picked men, chosen from the whole army, who, mounted upon these very swift animals, were employed in pursuing the Arabs through the desert, and overtaking them where it would have been impossible for any other troops. Tribes of Arabs retiring into the deepest parts of the desert, where they thought themselves secure, were soon dispersed by them, and their numerous flocks of sheep, sometimes as many as two or three thousand, became the property of the captors, among whom the value was afterward divided. By these means, several individuals of this corps had accumulated to the amount of forty or fifty thousand livres, [sixteen or twenty hundred guineas] with which they were very glad to return to France. I have heard it confidently asserted, that, when attacked by a very superiour force of Arabs, the men dismounted from their dromedaries, and, making them lie down, placed themselves behind them, the animal thus serving as a parapet to his rider.' P. 133.

The following account of the capoutan pacha merits our particular attention, as he may become an important personage in future political scenes.

'The capoutan pacha has displayed, in the present campaign at least, his military qualifications, which have obtained him high renown in this country, but which dwindle away when put in competition with the talents of an European commander.

'An ambition spurning the idea of a rival, prodigal generosity, activity indefatigable, great penetration, a marked predilection for

every thing European, and a desire to better the condition of every one immediately about him, are the best and most prominent features in his character; but to his education in the seraglio he owes the opposite and dark side of his character, profound dissimulation, and a deep spirit of intrigue.

He has great interest at Constantinople, derived from his own abilities, and from his relationship to the sultan, one of whose sisters is his wife. He is violent in his hatred to the person who has sufficient penetration to develop his character, or his views; but as his animosity increases, he puts on a semblance of friendship more attractive, and the mask of kindness never falls off, till his enemy is enticed into the snare.

Still he is the only man now among the Turks, who possesses enlarged ideas in politics. He has been able to place the Turkish navy on a footing far more respectable, than when he was put at its head; and there is not one Turkish commander, except himself, who has disciplined his troops with any degree of regularity. He has now under his orders two very good regiments, those of Abdallah and Soliman Aga, commanded indeed by Germans, but owing much of their regularity to his own superintendence.

The capoutan pacha has the utmost contempt for the vizier, which he does not endeavour to conceal. He took great pains to keep his army separate, and always wished that the prowess of his troops should be compared with that of the vizier's forces. His pride told him, that he could not lose by the comparison.

The vivacity of his mind inclines him rather to the French than to the English, and should he succeed in his views of being appointed vizier, to which situation his talents and ambition lead him, his first act would probably be to consolidate an amicable treaty with France, and endeavour to establish a regular and well disciplined army in the Turkish empire, by introducing European officers. He will probably succeed in many of his plans, unless continual fatigue, excess in opium, or intrigues, cut him off in the midst of his career.

There is one person in whom he reposes the utmost confidence, and whom on all occasions he consults. This is Isaak Bey, a man of deep and low cunning, who has been at Paris, and is a complete Frenchman. He will most likely succeed his patron, the capoutan pacha, in his situation.' P. 146.

Pompey's Pillar has shared much of the attention of the English officers, who have discovered an inscription on its base. The whole account we shall transcribe:

'In a former part of this work I had mentioned it was plainly discernible, that there had been an inscription on the western face of the pedestal of the pillar near Alexandria, commonly called Pompey's, though this has been flatly denied by some travellers. This inscription, however, was in such a state that nothing short of the most indefatigable ardour could hope to decipher it; yet it has been accomplished by the able and unremitting exertions of the honourable captain Dundas, of the royal staff corps, and lieutenant Desade, of the queen's German regiment, the latter of whom, during the campaign

in Egypt, served as aide de camp to major general Sir Eyre Coots, as he has since under the earl of Cavan: by whom this valuable discovery, which ascertains to whom and by whom the pillar was erected, has just been brought to England. These gentlemen, by visiting the pillar repeatedly, during the few moments when the sun shone in such a direction upon the pedestal as to mark the letters by their shade, were enabled to discriminate them one after another. Thus they executed a task, in six weeks, which none of the French *savans* or literati appear even to have attempted during their long stay in the country. I shall give the inscription first as it was made out by these officers, and then as the deficient letters have been supplied by the rev. Mr. Hayter, at Naples, who is laudably employed in deciphering the manuscripts found in Herculaneum. To these I shall subjoin an English translation.

TO ΩΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
ΔΙΟΚ · Η · ΙΑΝΟΝΤΟΝ ΤΟΝ
ΠΟ ΕΠΑΡΧΟC ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ

ΤΟΝ ΤΙΜΙΩΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
ΔΙΟΚΛΗΤΙΑΝΟΝ ΤΟΝ CΕΒΑCΤΟΝ
ΠΟΝΤΙΟC ΕΠΑΡΧΟC ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ
"ΠΡΟCΚΥΝΕΙ"

Translation.

TO DIOCLETIANUS AUGUSTUS
MOST ADORABLE EMPEROR,
THE TUTELAR DEITY OF ALEXANDRIA,
PONTIUS, PREFECT OF EGYPT,
CONSECRATES THIS.

We think Mr. Hayter, whose classical knowledge we are well acquainted with, and highly respect, did not furnish this translation, nor authorise our author to add, that the inscription shows *to* whom, and *by* whom, this pillar was erected. In every erection of a monument to the honour of an emperor or a hero, the dative case is always employed; but *προσκύνησις* is, we believe, never used with a dative, except in the New Testament; nor is the word ever employed in an inscription. This, however, only militates against the use of the supplied word *προσκύνησις*; but the remark holds with respect to the pillar being erected to Diocletian. The sentence may be concluded in many other ways. We shall not add our conjectures, but only remark that the disputed point is by no means elucidated.

The journey to Cairo offers nothing particularly interesting, except the plates, which represent views of Cairo, Gizeh, &c, drawn with elegance and precision. There are views, also, of Joseph's well, and the different mechanical means of raising the waters of the Nile for the purpose of inundation. We cannot omit our author's description of the pyramids, as it is of consequence to record the impression these stupendous remains make on different minds.

'The country was almost all under water, and from the spot where we landed we had about a mile to walk, over a heavy sand, to the great pyramid. As we approached these most ancient and astonishing of all antiquities, we were surprised not to find their bulk increase in appearance; and, what was still more extraordinary, when at the distance of two hundred yards, the stones, with which they are built, seemed to our eyes no larger than common bricks; but when we arrived at the foot of the first pyramid, which is the largest, we were struck with astonishment, and could not but wonder at the immense labour and expense, with which these admirable monuments must have been raised. Those stones, which at so short a distance had appeared so small, were now transformed into masses four feet square, and two in height. To what this illusion is to be ascribed, whether to the power of perspective, or to the manner in which these structures are built, each course of stones receding from that beneath it, till they arrive at the top, I am at a loss to conceive.

'Several large heaps of stone, of the same kind and size as those used in the building of the pyramids, are collected around them. This stone is of a soft nature, and in appearance not unlike chalk,

'The construction of these massive monuments, built with all the proportions necessary to ensure their durability, though not a masterpiece of elegance, is surely one of art; as neither the force of winds and storms, the gradual decay of time, nor the spoiling hand of man, has hitherto been able to shake them. Even at this remote period from the time when they were erected, the toil and cost, that must attend their demolition, would be incredible.

'From the pyramids we proceeded to that monstrous figure, the sphinx. The face of it has been most savagely mutilated, and only retains enough of its former features, to allow you to guess what it once was. The French, having cleared the sand all around the foundation, have enabled us to ascertain, that it never had a body connected to it, as was generally imagined.' p. 249.

The 'views' of the pyramids merit commendation.

A few concluding observations on the Nile, the climate, and population, of Egypt, are added, which convey no new information. They are illustrated with coloured plates, bold but incorrect.

The appendix contains the various returns and dispatches of the commanders, with the papers found in the pocket of general Roize, who fell the 21st of March; and a very candid account of the siege of Cairo, by general Belliard, al-

ready published. In short, we find every document which is necessary to remove doubt or skepticism.

ART. II. — *Voyages from Montréal, on the River St. Lawrence, through the Continent of North America, &c. By Alexander Mackenzie, Esq. (Continued from Vol. XXXV. New Arr. p. 130.*

WE return to these Voyages, though without great curiosity, since, having completed the subject in a geographical view, the particular events cannot expect to be found very interesting. In the first journey, whose course, in general, we traced (p. 123), we find few circumstances which can detain us. Scattered tribes of savages, in the higher latitudes, with few resources of ingenuity, and as few powers of mind, meet us in different directions. Their huts are rude constructions, their arts but trivial. The fisheries are their chief support, though they are occasionally hunters. The beaver does not appear to be a frequent inhabitant of the high northern region through which our author traveled; and the skin of a moose-deer was there considered as a present of peculiar value. Slave Lake, which lies in a more genial climate (about 61° north latitude), abounds with a variety of animals; and we shall select a short account of our traveler's observations in this spot:—they were made in June 1789.

' The course of this river' (Slave River) 'is meandering, and tends to the north, and in about ten miles falls into the Slave Lake, where we arrived at nine in the morning, when we found a great change in the weather, as it was become extremely cold. The lake was entirely covered with ice, and did not seem in any degree to have given way, but near the shore. The gnats and muskitoes, which were very troublesome during our passage along the river, did not venture to accompany us to this colder region.

' The banks of the river both above and below the rapids, were on both sides covered with the various kinds of wood common to this country; particularly the western side; the land being lower and consisting of a rich black soil. This artificial ground is carried down by the stream, and rests upon drift wood, so as to be eight or ten feet deep. The eastern banks are more elevated, and the soil a yellow clay mixed with gravel; so that the trees are neither so large or numerous as on the opposite shore. The ground was not thawed above fourteen inches in depth; notwithstanding the leaf was at its full growth; while along the lake there was scarcely any appearance of verdure.

' The Indians informed me, that, at a very small distance from either bank of the river, are very extensive plains, frequented by large herds of buffaloes; while the moose and rein-deer keep in the woods that border on it. The beavers, which are in great numbers, build

their habitations in the small lakes and rivers, as, in the larger streams, the ice carries every thing along with it, during the spring. The mud banks in the river are covered with wild fowl; and we this morning killed two swans, ten geese, and one beaver, without suffering the delay of an hour: so that we might have soon filled the canoe with them, if that had been our object. P. 7.

From Slave Lake, Mr. Mackenzie proceeds, in a western direction, to the mountains, through a river to which his own name is affixed. This river, on reaching the higher grounds, assumes a northerly direction, and falls into the North Sea. He seems not to have seen the sea; but its vicinity was sufficiently clear, from the tides. Whale Island, the Thule of Mr. Mackenzie, is nearly in $69\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. The following is a description of the Indians in latitude $65\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ —somewhat to the south of the point where the great Bear River, from the east, joins Mackenzie's River, or rather diverges from it, in a western course.

During our short stay with these people, they amused us with dancing, which they accompanied with their voices; but neither their song or their dance possessed much variety. The men and women formed a promiscuous ring. The former have a bone dagger or piece of stick between the fingers of the right hand, which they keep extended above the head, in continual motion: the left they seldom raise so high, but work it backwards and forwards in an horizontal direction; while they leap about and throw themselves into various antic postures, to the measure of their music, always bringing their heels close to each other at every pause. The men occasionally howl in imitation of some animal, and he who continues this violent exercise for the longest period, appears to be considered as the best performer. The women suffer their arms to hang as without the power of motion. They are a meagre, ugly, ill-made people, particularly about the legs, which are very clumsy and covered with scabs. The latter circumstance proceeds probably from their habitually roasting them before the fire. Many of them appeared to be in a very unhealthy state, which is owing, as I imagine, to their natural filthiness. They are of a moderate stature, and as far as could be discovered, through the coat of dirt and grease that covers them, are of a fairer complexion than the generality of Indians who are the natives of warmer climates.

Some of them have their hair of a great length; while others suffer a long tress to fall behind, and the rest is cut so short as to expose their ears, but no other attention whatever is paid to it. The beards of some of the old men were long, and the rest had them pulled out by the roots, so that not an hair could be seen on their chins. The men have two double lines, either black or blue, tattooed upon each cheek, from the ear to the nose. The gristle of the latter is perforated so as to admit a goose-quill or a small piece of wood to be passed through the orifice. Their clothing is made of the dressed skins of the rein or moose-deer, though more commonly of the former. These they prepare in the hair for winter, and make shirts of both, which reach to

the middle of their thighs. Some of them are decorated with an embroidery of very neat workmanship with porcupine quills and the hair of the moose, coloured red, black, yellow, and white. Their upper garments are sufficiently large to cover the whole body, with a fringe round the bottom, and are used both sleeping and awake. Their leggings come half way up the thigh, and are sewed to their shoes: they are embroidered round the ankle, and upon every seam. The dress of the women is the same as that of the men. The former have no covering on their private parts, except a tassel of leather which dangles from a small cord, as it appears, to keep off the flies, which would otherwise be very troublesome. Whether circumcision be practised among them, I cannot pretend to say, but the appearance of it was general among those whom I saw. P. 35.

‘ Their lodges are of a very simple structure: a few poles supported by a fork, and forming a semicircle at the bottom, with some branches or a piece of bark as a covering, constitutes the whole of their native architecture. They build two of these huts facing each other, and make the fire between them. The furniture harmonises with the buildings: they have a few dishes of wood, bark, or horn; the vessels in which they cook their victuals, are in the shape of a gourd, narrow at the top and wide at the bottom, and of watape, fabricated in such a manner as to hold water, which is made to boil by putting a succession of red-hot stones into it. These vessels contain from two to six gallons. They have a number of small leather bags to hold their embroidered work, lincs, and nets. They always keep a large quantity of the fibres of willow bark, which they work into thread on their thighs. Their nets are from three to forty fathoms in length, and from thirteen to thirty-six meshes in depth. The short deep ones they set in the eddy current of rivers, and the long ones in the lakes. They likewise make lincs of the sinews of the rein-deer, and manufacture their hooks from wood, horn, or bone. Their arms and weapons for hunting, are bows and arrows, spears, daggers, and pogamagans, or clubs. The bows are about five or six feet in length, and the strings are of sinews or raw skins. The arrows are two feet and an half long, including the barb, which is variously formed of bone, horn, flint, iron, or copper, and are winged with three feathers. The pole of the spears is about six feet in length, and pointed with a barbed bone of ten inches. With this weapon they strike the rein-deer in the water. The daggers are flat and sharp-pointed, about twelve inches long, and made of horn or bone. The pogamagon is made of the horn of the rein-deer, the branches being all cut off, except that which forms the extremity. This instrument is about two feet in length, and is employed to dispatch their enemies in battle, and such animals as they catch in snares placed for that purpose. These are about three fathom long, and are made of the green skin of the rein or moose-deer, but in such small strips, that it requires from ten to thirty strands to make this cord, which is not thicker than a cod-line; and strong enough to resist any animal that can be entangled in it. Snares or nooses are also made of sinews to take lesser animals, such as hares and white partridges, which are very numerous. Their axes are manufactured of a piece of brown or grey stone from six to eight inches long, and two

inches thick. The inside is flat, and the outside round and tapering to an edge, an inch wide. They are fastened by the middle with the flat side inwards to an handle two feet long, with a cord of green skin. This is the tool with which they split their wood, and we believe, the only one of its kind among them.' p. 37.

These Indians, as well as their more southern neighbours, were extravagant in their stories of the difficulties and dangers of the remainder of the journey. The river is represented as full of rapids, abounding in *manitous* or spirits; and the extent of the journey as being so great, that old age would overtake them before they could arrive at its termination. In the higher latitudes, the manners are more nearly those of the Esquimaux, from whom they are at no great distance on the north-east, and whom they seem greatly to dread. We need not stay to enlarge on the naked dreary appearance of these northern regions, or on the poverty of the inhabitants, but shall add the short account of what our voyagers last saw from Whale Island.

' We landed at the boundary of our voyage in this direction, and as soon as the tents were pitched I ordered the nets to be set, when I proceeded with the English chief to the highest part of the island, from which we discovered the solid ice, extending from the south-west by compass to the eastward. As far as the eye could reach to the south-westward, we could dimly perceive a chain of mountains, stretching further to the north than the edge of the ice, at the distance of upwards of twenty leagues. To the eastward we saw many islands, and in our progress we met with a considerable number of white partridges, now become brown. There were also flocks of very beautiful plovers, and I found the nest of one of them with four eggs. White owls, likewise, were among the inhabitants of the place: but the dead, as well as the living, demanded our attention, for we came to the grave of one of the natives, by which lay a bow, a paddle, and a spear. The Indians informed me that they landed on a small island, about four leagues from hence, where they had seen the tracks of two men, that were quite fresh; they had also found a secret store of train oil, and several bones of white bears were scattered about the place where it was hid. The wind was now so high that it was impracticable for us to visit the nets.' p. 60.

In these regions the travelers stay some time, pursuing the whales when practicable, and supplying themselves with food from the river, by means of their nets, and from the air, by their fire-arms. The animals of these regions are rein-deer, bears, wolvereens, martens, foxes, hares, and white buffaloes; but the latter are only found in the mountains on the west. The Esquimaux are represented as treacherous and cruel: with them, the Indians have frequent contests; and the former appear to be, in many respects, a more intelligent and ingenious race. The Esquimaux men-

tioned their having seen canoes full of white men, eight or ten years ago, to the westward, which were probably some of the seamen of captain Cook. In these high latitudes, Mr. Mackenzie remarks that the appetite is voracious. Ten men and four women devoured, in six days, two rein-deer, four swans, forty-five geese, and a considerable quantity of fishes.

The return was marked by few peculiar circumstances. Some petroleum of a yellow colour, and brittle in consistence, was found on the branch of a stream falling into Mackenzie's River; and flints are discoverable also on its banks. The following observations deserve notice, though we shall not attempt to explain them. They, however, evidently allude to European visitors.

'There were five or six persons whom we had not seen before; and among them was a dog-rib Indian, whom some private quarrel had driven from his country. The English chief understood him as well as one of his own nation, and gave the following account of their conversation:—

'He had been informed by the people with whom he now lives, the Hare Indians, that there is another river on the other side of the mountains to the south-west, which falls into the Belhoullay Toe, or White-man's Lake, in comparison of which that on whose banks we then were, was but a small stream; that the natives were very large, and very wicked, and kill common men with their eyes; that they make canoes larger than ours; that those who inhabit the entrance of it kill a kind of beaver, the skin of which is almost red; and that large canoes often frequent it. As there is no known communication by water with this river, the natives who saw it went over the mountains.' P. 82.

On further examination, this intelligent Indian seemed to describe Unalasche Fort; and the western river was consequently Cook's. From his account, Mackenzie's River must very nearly reach Norton Sound, as the man made mention of a long point of land between the rivers, which was probably a point of the mountains;—but, with respect to so uncertain a circumstance, there is much room for hesitation. The coast to the west of Whale Island has not been very carefully examined. Of these western inhabitants, many singular stories were related. Their large canoes we can easily understand; and that they are of a gigantic stature, adorned with wings, may be a tale easily transferred from the ships to the men. It is said, also, that they fed on large birds, which they killed with ease, though common men became also the victims of their voracity; and that they could kill with their eyes. All this may be easily explained by the accidental sight of an European leveling his gun at a large bird. No additional circumstance worth recording occurred, except

that they saw the side of a seam of coals on fire, on the banks of the river, which filled the air with sulphureous vapour.

The second voyage was, as we have before mentioned, to the Pacific Ocean, chiefly in the course of Peace River, already described.

'In consequence of this design, I left the establishment of Fort Chepewyan, in charge of Mr. Roderic Mackenzie, accompanied by two canoes laden with the necessary articles for trade; we accordingly steered west for one of the branches that communicates with the Peace River, called the Pine River; at the entrance of which we waited for the other canoes, in order to take some supplies from them, as I had reason to apprehend they would not be able to keep up with us. We entered the Peace River at seven in the morning of the 12th, taking a westerly course. It is evident, that all the land between it and the Lake of the Hills, as far as the Elk River, is formed by the quantity of earth and mud, which is carried down by the streams of those two great rivers. In this space there are several lakes. The lake Clear Water, which is the deepest, Lake Vassieu, and the Athabasca lake, which is the largest of the three, and whose denomination in the Knistineaux language implies a flat, low, swampy country, subject to inundations. The two last lakes are now so shallow, that, from the cause just mentioned, there is every reason to expect, that in a few years, they will have exchanged their character and become extensive forests.

'This country is so level, that, at some seasons, it is entirely overflowed, which accounts for the periodical influx and reflux of the waters between the Lake of the Hills and the Peace River.' p. 122.

The name of the river and the point arose from the peace, concluded at the latter, between the Beaver and the Knisteneaux Indians, the real names being those of the land which was the object of the contest. From the Falls, to what is called the old establishment, the river trends south-west *. In this country, the inhabitants—viz. the Chepewyans—have adopted the appearance and manners of their former enemies, the Knisteneaux; and their women are, apparently, kept in the most abject submission. They are, of course, squalid and dirty in the extreme. From the entrance of the river, to the Falls, the country is low. On the lowest ground the soil is good, being composed of the sediment of the river, of putrefied leaves and vegetables. In the higher grounds is a yellow clay, mixed with stones. On a line with the Falls, there are, on each side of the river, extensive plains, the pasture of numerous herds of buffaloes. Above the Falls, the ground is more lofty, and displays a similar soil with the higher grounds lately mentioned. Culinary vegetables and

* As Mr. Mackenzie is ascending the stream, the course of the river itself must be considered, in every instance, as in this, to be in an opposite direction. *REV.*

roots will probably thrive on this spot, as they have done in the neighbourhood of the Elk River, and the Lake of the Hills.

Our author wintered at what is called, in the map, 'Fork Fort,' somewhat to the north and west of the forks of two considerable branches of Peace River. In this spot, on the 25th of November, the thermometer was 14° below 0; and on the 28th, 16° . On the recurrence of a south wind, the thermometer re-ascended to nearly the freezing point. On the 2d of December, however, the instrument was accidentally broken. Fork Fort is in about $56\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ north latitude. The transactions of a winter-residence in this ungenial climate cannot be numerous. — Our author's account of the Beaver Indians is not devoid of interest. They are quick, lively, and active, with dark penetrating eyes, passionate, but easily appeased, fond of gaming, and eradicate their beards. Several appear to be old; but little of their age is known. One Indian said that he remembered the hills and plains—now interspersed with groves of poplars—when they produced nothing but moss, and fed only rein-deer. When the elk and the buffalo appeared from the east, the rein-deer retired to the mountains, and the face of the country soon altered.

Our author proceeds in a westernly or a south-west direction; but his map is at variance with his description. Where the Quisquatina Sepey falls into Peace River, it is said to be in latitude $55^{\circ} 56'$ nearly; but, in the map, the whole of this part of the course is above latitude 56° . The following description of a beautiful country, on the western bank, merits particular notice.

'From the place which we quitted this morning, the west side of the river displayed a succession of the most beautiful scenery I had ever beheld. The ground rises at intervals to a considerable height, and stretching inwards to a considerable distance: at every interval or pause in the rise, there is a very gently ascending space or lawn, which is alternate with abrupt precipices to the summit of the whole, or, at least as far as the eye could distinguish. This magnificent theatre of nature has all the decorations which the trees and animals of the country can afford it: groves of poplars in every shape vary the scene; and their intervals are enlivened with vast herds of elks and buffaloes: the former choosing the steeps and uplands, and the latter preferring the plains. At this time the buffaloes were attended with their young ones who were frisking about them; and it appeared that the elks would soon exhibit the same enlivening circumstance. The whole country displayed an exuberant verdure; the trees that bear a blossom were advancing fast to that delightful appearance, and the velvet rind of their branches reflecting the oblique rays of a rising or a setting sun, added a splendid gaiety to the scene, which no expressions of mine are

qualified to describe. The east side of the river consists of a range of high land covered with the white spruce and the soft birch, while the banks abound with the alder and the willow.' P. 154.

Our travelers now arrive at rocky mountains, where scenes of difficulty and distress, almost unparalleled, await them. The river rolls down in torrents, or tumbles in cascades—is sometimes confined between two craggy mountains, or bounds over a rocky bed, interspersed with still more dangerous islands. On either side the mountains are almost impassable: and the Indian carrying-place is not easily discoverable. These various perils are not concentrated in any one picture which we can copy. We shall, however, select a passage or two, as a specimen.

' Those of my people who visited this place on the 21st. were of opinion that the water had risen very much since that time. About two hundred yards below us the stream rushed with an astonishing but silent velocity, between perpendicular rocks, which are not more than thirty-five yards asunder: when the water is high, it runs over those rocks, in a channel three times that breadth, where it is bounded by far more elevated precipices. In the former are deep round holes, some of which are full of water, while others are empty, in whose bottom are small round stones, as smooth as marble. Some of these natural cylinders would contain two hundred gallons. At a small distance below the first of these rocks, the channel widens in a kind of zig-zag progression; and it was really awful to behold with what infinite force the water drives against the rocks on one side, and with what impetuous strength it is repelled to the other: it then falls back, as it were, into a more straight but rugged passage, over which it is tossed in high, foaming, half-formed billows, as far as the eye could follow it.

' The young men informed me that this was the place where their relations had told me that I should meet with a fall equal to that of Niagara: to exculpate them, however, from their apparent misinformation, they declared that their friends were not accustomed to utter falsehoods, and that the fall had probably been destroyed by the force of the water. It is, however, very evident that those people had not been here, or did not adhere to the truth. By the number of trees which appeared to have been felled with axes, we discovered that the Knisteneaux, or some tribes who are known to employ that instrument, had passed this way. We passed through a snare enclosure, but saw no animals, though the country was very much intersected by their tracks.' P. 180.

' Though the sun had shone upon us throughout the day, the air was so cold that the men, though actively employed, could not resist it without the aid of their blanket coats. This circumstance might in some degree be expected from the surrounding mountains, which were covered with ice and snow; but as they are not so high as to produce the extreme cold which we suffered, it must be more particularly at-

tributed to the high situation of the country itself, rather than to the local elevation of the mountains, the greatest height of which does not exceed fifteen hundred feet; though in general they do not rise to half that altitude. But as I had not been able to take an exact measurement, I do not presume upon the accuracy of my conjecture. Towards the bottom of these heights, which were of clear snow, the trees were putting forth their leaves, while those in their middle region still retained all the characteristics of winter, and on their upper parts there was little or no wood.' P. 182.

In a less difficult track, the travelers proceed chiefly south-east, till they meet with some natives, whose situation and circumstances are far from enviable. They possess, nevertheless, iron-work, which they procure from European traders by means of some tribes who reach the shores of the Pacific—thus forming the connexion between the travelers from the east, and the visitants on the west. They contended, however, and persisted in the account—though most powerful temptations were held out, as means of inducing them to explain the situation of the country—that they knew of no river which reached from the spot on which they existed to the sea. Various plans now suggested themselves to Mr. Mackenzie, of which two chiefly engaged his attention—*viz.* to leave the canoe, and to penetrate, with these Indians, to their commercial friends, or to abandon the enterprise. The former was difficult, the latter mortifying. At last, he discovered, from one of the more intelligent, that, at the source of Peace River, he would find another, through which he might pass; but that even this did not lead to the sea. The rest of the road was chiefly by land, through lakes interspersed with islands inhabited by a warlike and a somewhat civilised race.

Our travelers pursue, with more ease and success, their course to the highest point of the mountains, the chief source of the Unjigah, or Peace River, in latitude $54^{\circ} 24'$, west longitude 121° ; which, after winding through a great extent of country, receiving many large rivers, and passing through Slave Lake, falls into the Frozen Ocean, at 70° north latitude, and 135° west longitude, beyond Whale Island, the boundary of the former journey.

On the summit of these mountains, perhaps the highest land of the American continent, they meet with lakes—the sources of the different rivers—and particularly with those which furnish the rivers whose course is to the south. From these lakes, streamlets, as usual, proceed, which soon become large rivers, so rapid, as to wreck the canoe. In general, the stream is obstructed by drift wood, which, with the projecting rocks, and the furious current, destroys, for a

time, all their hopes. Their exertions, however, increase with their difficulties: the canoe is repaired; and they make a further effort. The river appears to be the Columbia: but its course is to the south; and it only falls into the Pacific, at a much lower latitude. Our travelers avail themselves of its assistance, so long as the Columbia can afford it: but, before they leave this river—the only one to which Columbus has had the honour of giving a name, on the continent which he, at least, first saw—they fell in with a more considerable branch from the south-east. In their track, they find some red deer, less than the elk, and truly the red deer, which our author had not before met with in the north. Their course, with a few slight deviations, is north-west; and the mountains are lower, the country more open, on the west, which is the chief object. The description of the country to the south, as communicated by the Indians, is curious.

‘ According to their account, this river, whose course is very extensive, runs towards the mid-day sun; and that at its mouth, as they had been informed, white people were building houses. They represented its current to be uniformly strong, and that in three places it was altogether impassable, from the falls and rapids, which poured along between perpendicular rocks that were much higher, and more rugged, than any we had yet seen, and would not admit of any passage over them. But besides the dangers and difficulties of the navigation, they added, that we should have to encounter the inhabitants of the country, who were very numerous. They also represented their immediate neighbours as a very malignant race, who lived in large subterraneous recesses: and when they were made to understand that it was our design to proceed to the sea, they dissuaded us from prosecuting our intention, as we should certainly become a sacrifice to the savage spirit of the natives. These people they described as possessing iron, arms, and utensils, which they procured from their neighbours to the westward, and were obtained by a commercial progress from people like ourselves, who brought them in great canoes.’
P. 245.

‘ I now proceeded to request the native, whom I had particularly selected, to commence his information, by drawing a sketch of the country upon a large piece of bark, and he immediately entered on the work, frequently appealing to, and sometimes asking the advice of, those around him. He described the river as running to the east of south, receiving many rivers, and every six or eight leagues encumbered with falls and rapids, some of which were very dangerous, and six of them impracticable. The carrying-places he represented as of great length, and passing over hills and mountains. He depicted the lands of three other tribes, in succession, who spoke different languages. Beyond them he knew nothing either of the river or country, only that it was still a long way to the sea; and that, as he had

heard; there was a lake, before they reached the water, which the natives did not drink. As far as his knowledge of the river extended, the country on either side was level, in many places without wood, and abounding in red deer, and some of a small fallow kind. Few of the natives, he said, would come to the banks for some time; but that at a certain season they would arrive there in great numbers, to fish. They now procured iron, brass, copper, and trinkets, from the westward; but formerly these articles were obtained from the lower parts of the river, though in small quantities. A knife was produced which had been brought from that quarter. The blade was ten inches long, and an inch and an half broad, but with a very blunted edge. The handle was of horn. We understood that this instrument had been obtained from white men, long before they had heard that any came to the westward. One very old man observed, that as long as he could remember, he was told of white people to the southward; and that he had heard, though he did not vouch for the truth of the report, that one of them had made an attempt to come up the river, and was destroyed.' p. 253.

The difficulties which appeared to obstruct the progress down the river, and the want of provisions for so extensive an expedition, induce our author to return to the point, where an overland voyage to the Pacific would be most easy. This, however, involves him in many distresses, from which he is relieved, in part by accident, but chiefly by his own firmness, his spirit, and presence of mind. In the detail of these events, we cannot engage. They build another canoe, at an island in the river, in latitude $53^{\circ} 3'$; and west longitude, $122^{\circ} 48'$.

The remainder of the journey was impeded by fewer difficulties. It lay over high mountains, where, in July, snow, especially when drifted, still remained; and the weather was occasionally very cold. They at last arrive within three days' journey of the sea, and meet with tribes more numerous and more civilised; but who seem to have a superstitious abhorrence of animal food; and feed on fish—chiefly, at this time, salmon—with which their river abounds. The customs of one of the tribes, through whose territories they pass, respecting sepulture, are too curious to be overlooked.

' We now left a small lake on our left, then crossed a creek running out of it, and at one in the afternoon came to an house, of the same construction and dimensions as have already been mentioned, but the materials were much better prepared and finished. The timber was squared on two sides, and the bark taken off the two others; the ridge pole was also shaped in the same manner, extending about eight or ten feet beyond the gable end, and supporting a shed over the door: the end of it was carved into the similitude of a snake's head. Several hieroglyphics and figures of a similar workmanship, and painted with red earth, decorated the interior of the building. The

inhabitants had left the house but a short time, and there were several bags or bundles in it, which I did not suffer to be disturbed. Near it were two tombs, surrounded in a neat manner with boards, and covered with bark. Beside them several poles had been erected, one of which was squared, and all of them painted. From each of them were suspended several rolls or parcels of bark, and our guide gave the following account of them; which, as far as we could judge from our imperfect knowledge of the language, and the incidental errors of interpretation, appeared to involve two different modes of treating their dead; or it might be one and the same ceremony, which we did not distinctly comprehend: at all events, it is the practice of these people to burn the bodies of their dead, except the larger bones, which are rolled up in bark and suspended from poles, as I have already described. According to the other account, it appeared that they actually bury their dead; and when another of the family dies, the remains of the person who was last interred are taken from the grave and burned, as has been already mentioned; so that the members of a family are thus successively buried and burned, to make room for each other; and one tomb proves sufficient for a family through succeeding generations.' P. 307.

Our travelers soon meet with those who had traded with Europeans; but, on the whole, their circumstances and situation were not greatly changed. As they approach the sea, the natives are thievish, inhospitable, and treacherous. At length, however, they reach the Pacific, at Vancouver's Point Menzies; and extend their voyage to the western cheek of the same navigator's Cascade Canal. Their ultimate longitude, carefully ascertained, was $128^{\circ} 2'$ west of Greenwich; their latitude, $52^{\circ} 20' 48''$.

The return was not marked by any very uncommon circumstances. At what is called Friendly Village, the first of any importance that occurred on their approach to the sea, they are again received with kindness, and have opportunity for some observation. Our author thinks that the inhabitants he surveyed occupy this spot only during the salmon season; and one trait, very singular in savage life, we shall copy.

'From the very little I could discover of their government, it is altogether different from any political regulation which had been remarked by me among the savage tribes. It is on this river alone that one man appears to have an exclusive and hereditary right to what was necessary to the existence of those who are associated with him. I allude to the salmon weir, or fishing place, the sole right to which confers on the chief an arbitrary power. Those embankments could not have been formed without a very great and associated labour; and, as might be supposed, on the condition that those who assisted in constructing it should enjoy a participating right in the advantages to be derived from it. Nevertheless, it evidently appeared to me, that the chief's power over it, and the people, was unlimited, and without con-

trol. No one could fish without his permission, or carry home a larger portion of what he had caught, than was set apart for him. No one could build an house without his consent; and all his commands appeared to be followed with implicit obedience. The people at large seemed to be on a perfect equality, while the strangers among them were obliged to obey the commands of the natives in general, or quit the village. They appear to be of a friendly disposition, but they are subject to sudden gusts of passion, which are as quickly composed; and the transition is instantaneous, from violent irritation to the most tranquil demeanor. Of the many tribes of savage people whom I have seen, these appear to be the most susceptible of civilization. They might soon be brought to cultivate the little ground about them which is capable of it. There is a narrow border of a rich black soil, on either side of the river, over a bed of gravel, which would yield any grain or fruit, that are common to similar latitudes in Europe.' p. 374.

Such are nearly the circumstances and events which occurred in Mr. Mackenzie's very adventurous tour, in which we must equally admire his intelligence, his spirit, and perseverance. A geographical survey of the British dominions, in these high latitudes, follows, which is not sufficiently clear to be detailed in a briefer abstract, nor so important as to tempt us to enlarge. In short, the whole prospect, as well in a political as in a physical view, is barren and dreary. One or two passages we shall transcribe, chiefly as supporting some opinions which we offered many years since.

* It is further to be observed, that these mountains, from Cook's entry to the Columbia, extend from six to eight degrees in breadth easterly; and that along their eastern skirts is a narrow strip of very marshy, boggy, and uneven ground, the outer edge of which produces coal and bitumen: these I saw on the banks of Mackenzie's River, as far north as latitude 66. I also discovered them in my second journey, at the commencement of the rocky mountains in 56. north latitude, and 120. west longitude; and the same was observed by Mr. Fidler, one of the servants of the Hudson's-Bay-Company, at the source of the south branch of the Saskatchewan, in about latitude 52. north, and longitude 112½. west. Next to this narrow belt are immense plains, or meadows, commencing in a point at about the junction of the River of the Mountain with Mackenzie's River, widening as they continue east and south, till they reach the Red River at its confluence with the Assiniboin River, from whence they take a more southern direction, along the Mississippi towards Mexico. Adjoining to these plains is a broken country, composed of lakes, rocks, and soil.' p. 402.

The following remarks are peculiarly valuable and important.

* It has been frequently advanced, that the difference of clearing away the wood has had an astonishing influence in meliorating the cli-

mate in the former: but I am not disposed to assent to that opinion in the extent which it proposes to establish, when I consider the very trifling proportion of the country cleared, compared with the whole. The employment of the axe may have had some inconsiderable effect; but I look to other causes. I myself observed in a country, which was in an absolute state of nature, that the climate is improving; and this circumstance was confirmed to me by the native inhabitants of it. Such a change, therefore, must proceed from some predominating operation in the system of the globe which is beyond my conjecture, and, indeed, above my comprehension, and may, probably, in the course of time, give to America the climate of Europe. It is well known, indeed, that the waters are decreasing there, and that many lakes are draining and filling up by the earth which is carried into them from the higher lands by the rivers: and this may have some partial effect.

‘ The climate on the west coast of America assimilates much more to that of Europe in the same latitudes: I think very little difference will be found, except such as proceeds from the vicinity of high mountains covered with snow. This is an additional proof that the difference in the temperature of the air proceeds from the cause already mentioned.

‘ Much has been said, and much more still remains to be said on the peopling of America. On this subject I shall confine myself to one or two observations; and leave my readers to draw their inferences from them.

‘ The progress of the inhabitants of the country immediately under our observation, which is comprised within the line of latitude 45. north, is as follows: that of the Esquimaux, who possess the sea coast from the Atlantic through Hudson’s Straits and Bay, round to Mackenzie’s River, (and I believe further) is known to be westward: they never quit the coast, and agree in appearance, manners, language, and habits with the inhabitants of Greenland. The different tribes whom I describe under the name of Algonquins and Knisteneaux, but originally the same people, were the inhabitants of the Atlantic coast, and the banks of the river St. Laurence and adjacent countries: their progress is westerly, and they are even found west and north, as far as Athabasca. On the contrary, the Chepewyans, and the numerous tribes who speak their language, occupy the whole space between the Knisteneaux country and that of the Esquimaux, stretching behind the natives of the coast of the Pacific, to latitude 52. north, on the river Columbia. Their progress is easterly; and, according to their own traditions, they came from Siberia; agreeing in dress and manner with the people now found upon the coast of Asia.

‘ Of the inhabitants of the coast of the Pacific Ocean we know little more than that they are stationary there. The Nadowasis or Assiniboins, as well as the different tribes not particularly described, inhabiting the plains on and about the source and banks of the Saskatchewan and Assiniboin rivers, are from the southward, and their progress is north-west.’ P. 405.

The remainder of the volume relates to the fur-trade, the

inland navigation of the American continent, and the rights of the Hudson's-Bay Company. On these we shall not any further enlarge. We have already engaged sufficiently on the subject, and shall dismiss the present work with remarking, that, though offering no new or splendid discovery, nor bringing back any peculiarly valuable object of commerce, it, on the whole, adds greatly to our geographical knowledge, and tells, perhaps, the sad tale, that the whole of this northern continent may be resigned without a sigh, or even the slightest regret.

ART. III.—*Home's History of the Rebellion in the Year 1745.*
(Continued from Vol. XXXV. p. 153.)

WE resume this history, with some degree of self-condemnation at the long interval which has elapsed since we first noticed it. Our article left prince Charles* at Edinburgh, in possession of the capital of the Scottish kingdom. We gave a glance at the general character of the work, the colloquial language in which the events are described, and the want of that comprehensive precision, those philosophical reflexions, which should have been the chief object of the historian, whose prototype, in the fond views of his admirers, was Sallust.

When we reflect, indeed, on the time which has intervened between the date of the transactions and the publication of the narrative—when we consider that every difference of a political nature is now done away—we are surprised that any difficulty could have remained on these points. Yet we perceive, or think we perceive, in the jejuneness of the narrative, and the paucity of its reflexions, that the author still feels 'the fires scarcely concealed under their ashes'—that he yet walks over burning ploughshares, and measures every step with a peculiar, a studied caution. The work, it has been said, has been long under his hands; and repeated revision may have damped its ardor. It is recorded of an ancient nation, that they deliberated both when sober and when intoxicated, that their determinations might want neither discretion nor spirit. May we not suppose that this history has shared a little of our author's attention, if not in these extremes of animal spirits, at least in very different states of mind, but that the sober spirit has prevailed?

* At this moment, we need scarcely make an apology for applying the title of prince to the Pretender: he was the son of an acknowledged king; and all the pretensions of himself and family are now at an end. RAY.

The first appearance of Charles demands our attention.

' About ten o'clock the main body of the rebels marching by Duddingston (to avoid being fired upon by the castle) entered the King's Park, and halted in the hollow between the hills, under the peak called Arthur's Seat. By and by Charles came down to the Duke's Walk, accompanied by the Highland chiefs, and other commanders of his army.

' The park was full of people, (amongst whom was the author of this history,) all of them impatient to see this extraordinary person. The figure and presence of Charles Stuart were not ill suited to his lofty pretensions. He was in the prime of youth*, tall and handsome, of a fair complexion; he had a light coloured periwig with his own hair combed over the front: he wore the Highland dress, that is a tartan short coat without the plaid, a blue bonnet on his head, and on his breast the star of the order of St. Andrew. Charles stood some time in the park to shew himself to the people; and then, though he was very near the palace, mounted his horse, either to render himself more conspicuous, or because he rode well, and looked graceful on horseback.

' The Jacobites were charmed with his appearance: they compared him to Robert the Bruce, whom he resembled (they said) in his figure as in his fortune. The whigs looked upon him with other eyes. They acknowledged that he was a goodly person; but they observed, that even in that triumphant hour, when he was about to enter the palace of his fathers, the air of his countenance was languid and melancholy: that he looked like a gentleman and a man of fashion, but not like a hero or a conqueror. Hence they formed their conclusions that the enterprize was above the pitch of his mind; and that his heart was not great enough for the sphere in which he moved. When Charles came to the palace, he dismounted, and walked along the piazza, towards the apartment of the duke of Hamilton. When he was near the door, which stood open to receive him, a gentleman stepped out of the crowd, drew his sword, and raising his arm aloft, walked up stairs before Charles.' p. 99.

On the proclamation of the regent, it is observed, that—

' the populace of a great city, who huzza for any thing that brings them together, huzzaed; and a number of ladies in the windows strained their voices with acclamation, and their arms with waving white handkerchiefs in honour of the day.

' These demonstrations of joy, amongst people of condition, were chiefly confined to one sex; few gentlemen were to be seen on the streets, or in the windows; and even amongst the inferior people, many shewed their dislike by a stubborn silence.

' Whilst the heralds were proclaiming king James at Edinburgh, sir John Cope was landing his troops at Dunbar: the two regiments

* Born at Rome on the 31st of December, in the year 1720, he was in the 5th year of his age. While Charles was standing in the Duke's Walk, one of the spectators endeavoured to measure shoulders with him; and said he was more than 5 feet 10 inches high.

of dragoons had come there on the morning of the 17th in a condition not very respectable*.' p. 102.

The battle of Preston is related with great perspicuity and precision; and, indeed, the authenticity of the details, in general, is sufficiently proved, from their consistency, and the names of many of the inferior actors. The indecision of sir John Cope was highly reprehensible; but the artillery-men were inexperienced. They were soon intimidated; and the panic was alike communicated to the cavalry and infantry. The event is well known to have been deeply disastrous to the loyalist cause; and, properly employed, it might have been greatly useful to Charles.

It has been generally supposed that the rebel cause was ruined by the inactivity which followed this battle. Mr. Home, however, defends the prince, on account of the inadequate force which he possessed. Some of the Highlanders had retired with the plunder; and the address of president Forbes had prevented the junction of other clans, who were expected from the same quarter. It may, indeed, be observed, that the utmost force which the adherents to the prince could collect, was never sufficient to conquer an *undivided* kingdom: but, at that time, it was greatly divided; and the splendor of the victory would have given spirit to his determined partisans, and have decided the resolutions of those who were wavering. Success, however, even at last, must certainly have failed: but the contest would have been more violent, and the probability of attaining the end considerably increased. Every friend to good order and humanity will rejoice that this unnatural war was not prolonged.

At length, the rebel army marched, after having received some inconsiderable reinforcements from France, together with others more numerous (but far less so than was expected by the Highlanders). Of the latter, many, in the moment of action, lost their former resolution; and many were persuaded, by the lord president, to distress government no

* The two regiments of dragoons, having retreated from the Colt Bridge, halted some time at Leith, and at Musselburgh, then they went on to a field between Preston Grange and Daughinston, where they dismounted and prepared to stay all night; but a dragoon seeking forage for his horse between 10 and 11 o'clock, fell into an old coal-pit which was full of water, and made such a noise that the dragoons thought the Highlanders had got amongst them; and mounting their horses, made the best of their way to Dunbar. Colonel Gardner had gone to his own house which was hard by, and locked the door when he went to bed, so that he heard nothing of the matter till next morning, when he rose, and followed his men with a heavy heart; for the road to Dunbar was strewn with swords, pistols, and firelocks, which were gathered together, and carried in covered carts to Dunbar; so that the flight of the two regiments was very little known in the army.'

longer; while many were overawed by the power which he had now assembled in favour of the king.

At this part of the story, it seems proper to mention the number of the rebel army, with some other particulars in which this Highland army differed from all other armies. When the rebels began their march to the southward, they were not 6000 men complete; they exceeded 5500, of whom 4 or 500 were cavalry; and of the whole number, not quite 4000 were real Highlanders, who formed the clan regiments, and were indeed the strength of the rebel army. All the regiments of foot wore the Highland garb: they were thirteen in number, many of them very small. Besides the two troops of horse-guards, there were lord Pitaligo's and Strathallan's horse, lord Kilmarnock's horse grenadiers, and a troop of light horse or hussars to scour the country and procure intelligence. The pay of a captain in this army was half a crown a day; the pay of a lieutenant two shillings; the pay of an ensign one shilling and sixpence; and every private man received sixpence a day, without deduction. In the clan regiments, every company had two captains, two lieutenants, and two ensigns. The front rank of each regiment consisted of persons who called themselves gentlemen, and were paid one shilling a day; these gentlemen were better armed than the men in the ranks behind them, and had all of them targets, which many of the others had not.

Every clan regiment was commanded by the chief, or his son, or his brother (the nearest of kin, whoever he was), according to the custom of clanship. In the day of battle, each company of a Highland regiment furnished two of their best men as a guard to the chief. In the choice of this guard, consanguinity was considered; and the chief (whose post was the centre of the regiment, by the colours) stood between two brothers, or two cousins german. The train of artillery which belonged to this army of invaders consisted of general Cope's field pieces, taken at the battle of Preston, and of some pieces of a larger caliber, brought over in the ships from France, amounting in all to 13 pieces of cannon.' P. 137.

Never was a force so inadequate to the design; and, at this distance of time, when cool reflexion enables us to judge with calmness and precision, can we suppose that any degree of disaffection in the kingdom would have enabled Charles to attain his great object? Money, stores, camp equipage, were all wanting; and English farmers or manufacturers—for from this class the ranks must have been filled—could neither repose without tents, nor be contented with the slender fare which to the Highlander was a luxury. Though some had joined, others ought to have been expected to rise in opposition; and the latter, with superior advantages, would have been soon more powerful, perhaps more numerous. Misfortune, the baleful attendant upon Charles's house, had not yet emptied her quiver; and this rash unadvised expedition probably hastened its ruin. It began inauspiciously, and ended in disappointment. Few united with him; and

the army returned, after having eluded the king's troops, and advanced to Derby.

A mystery still hangs over the first step of the retreat. In this and another instance, it is said to have been proposed by lord George Murray, and urged as the general opinion of the chiefs, without a council. In both, Charles, on being applied to at a subsequent period, declares that a council was held, in which the retreat was decided upon. In opposition to Charles's declarations, however, we have the assertion, in the present instance, of Mr. Hay—who acted as his secretary, and in whose presence the subsequent retreat from Derby was first proposed to Charles—who affirms, that he received it with indignation: the other report, on the contrary, rests on the authority of lord George Murray himself.—Such is history!—After some examination and inquiry, we are inclined to distrust Charles's account. In his advanced state, vexation, disappointment, and intoxication, had destroyed his faculties. He might wish it not to be remembered that he had been treated with disrespect; and we may more easily believe that he was forgetful, or unwilling, to submit to a humiliating avowal, than that Mr. Hay could have invented the circumstances which he states at length.—Did lord George Murray act with Charles to betray him? Impossible: yet the attentive reader will sometimes feel an involuntary suggestion of this kind. In the present instance, to march to London, with little appearance of support from intestine disaffection, was madness; it was desperation in its last state; but, if successful, it would have been heroism in its most exalted.

Much of the merit of the present history consists in the minor details, which the more general historian disregards. These are related with great perspicuity and precision: but we need not follow them. The skirmish at Clifton, on the return of the rebels, is described, from lord George Murray's Memoirs, to have terminated in the prince's favour. We shall, however, hasten on to the battle of Falkirk.

The event of the battle of Falkirk is known to have been disastrous: yet a part of each army seems to have been defeated; and the termination was in favour of the rebels, chiefly from the subsequent conduct of general Hawley, in destroying the tents, and leaving his cannon and ammunition. The numbers were nearly equal: but, either despising the efforts of the Highlanders in opposition to cavalry, or fearing that the rebels meant to escape, general Hawley ordered about eight hundred dragoons to attack eight thousand foot. The horse were, of course, repulsed; and the first and second line of the left did not stand an attack with the broad sword. On the right, a ravine was inter-

posed; and Barrel's (strangely called in this work *Burrel's*), with a part of two other regiments, stood firm, and repulsed the rebels on that side. The pursuers, on the other side, were, however, equally in disorder. The Highlanders, nevertheless, kept the field; and general Hawley retreated disgracefully.

Every person who reads this account, or any other account of the battle of Falkirk, will be apt to think it very strange, that general Hawley should order * 700, or 800 dragoons to attack 8000 foot drawn up in two lines. It is said and generally believed, that general Hawley, when he heard that the Highlanders were about to cross the Carron at Dunipace, did not think they were coming to attack his army, but imagined that they were going to give him the slip, and march back to England: that in this conceit he ordered his dragoons and foot to march up the hill, intercept the rebels, and force them to come to an action. Hence the conflict happened upon a piece of ground which he had never viewed, and was a field of battle exceedingly disadvantageous to his troops. As for the order given to the officer who commanded the dragoons, to attack the whole Highland army, it is proper to inform the reader, that general Hawley had been major of Evans's dragoons at the battle of Sheriffmuir, where that regiment, with the Scots Greys, led by the duke of Argyle and Greenwich, getting over a morass (which the intense frost of one night had rendered passable), attacked † the flank of the rebel army, rode down, and drove off the field several regiments of Highlanders.

When the news of the battle of Preston came to the army in Flanders, general Hawley reprobated the conduct of Mr. Cope, and said in a company of officers, "that *he* knew the Highlanders, they were good militia, but he was certain that they could not stand against a charge of dragoons who attacked them well." Lieutenant-colonel Hepburn ‡ was one of the company of officers that heard this speech of general Hawley's, and he allows his name to be mentioned with this anecdote, which accounts for the order given to colonel Ligonier.

In this ill-conducted battle, many brave officers of the king's army fell §. p. 175.

* The order sent to colonel Ligonier, was carried by Mr. Stuart Mackenzie, lord Bute's brother (afterwards lord privy seal for Scotland) who acted that day as aide-de-camp to general Hawley. The colonel and Mr. Mackenzie were intimate friends; and when the colonel received general Hawley's order, he said it was the most extraordinary order that ever was given. The author of this history having frequently conversed with Mr. Mackenzie concerning the battle of Falkirk, shewed him, many years after the rebellion, the account which is here given of what passed between the colonel and him, when he delivered general Hawley's order. Mr. Mackenzie hesitated a little, and said, he was not sure whether or not he had told Mr. Home, that colonel Ligonier said, it was the most extraordinary order that ever was given; but he was very sure the colonel looked as if he thought so.

† The battle of Sheriffmuir was fought on the 13th of November, O. S. in the year 1715, and the Highlanders thought the flank of their army secure.

‡ Lieutenant-colonel of the 6th regiment of dragoons, when he retired from the service.

§ One colonel (sir Robert Monro), three lieutenant colonels, lieutenant colonel

Much blame was attached to the conduct of each party: but, when it was considered that the troops, *now* defeated, were veterans, from the fields of Dettingen and Fontenoy, the fears of the loyal party were alive, and their hopes experienced some depression. The broad-sword, however, was a new weapon; and the soldier had not sufficient confidence in the bayonet, when opposed to it. The conqueror of Quebec contended; that, with a rusty nail on the top of a musket, he would parry off the broad-sword; and, if we mistake not, there was a friendly trial of skill between him and general Frazer, in which Wolfe kept him at a distance. It is a subject we shall soon resume; and offer, at the same time, some remarks on the cause of the rebels' success in this action.

We now proceed to the battle of Culloden—an action which has raised the duke of Cumberland's military talents so high, that even the convention of Closter-Seven cannot, in the annals of military history, obscure them. The army was drawn up with peculiar precision; the horse, foot, and artillery, were united, bearing on a single point; each regiment of the second line was formed on the opening of the two preceding it, so as to be able to succour either; while the reserve was admirably calculated to support any defeat in a given point. Hence the first generals have considered the whole as a model of arrangement. The duke, we apprehend, always declared that he had taken the model from his military tutor, Konigsegg, who beat the Turks by this mode of order. Be this as it may, we meant chiefly to observe, that the principle which determined the former actions, was practised in this before us, and might have been successful, notwithstanding the excellence of the arrangement. As it is a point not adverted to by any military historian, and as it is connected with some disputed circumstances in this battle, we may be allowed to enlarge on it: our observations will not be extensive.

If we look at the battles of Preston and of Falkirk, we shall find that the rebels confined their attack to one wing. On this they threw their whole force; and, if they conquered it, they were able to outflank the line. At Preston, this succeeded by the panic of the artillery; at Falkirk, by the first error of general Hawley, in attacking the whole army with 800 horse, the defeat of which intimidated the right.

Whitney (of the regiment late Gardner's), lieutenant colonel Bigger of Monro's regiment, lieutenant colonel Powell of Cholmondeley's; five captains of Wolfe's, and one lieutenant; four captains of Blackney's and two lieutenants, were killed, with about 300 or 400 private men.

* The Highlanders acknowledged that their army lost three captains and four subalterns, with 40 men killed, and twice as many wounded.

But, *even then*, had he changed the position of the left, and fronted them to their former flank, the rebels might have repented of their violence; for the left of this latter might have easily been checked by cannon across the ravine. This principle, of attacking one part of the line, cannot be too closely kept in view. It has been the source of all our naval victories; and of none more than that off Cape St. Vincent, which gave the title, and added a new wreath of laurels, to the already dignified and victorious commander.

At Culloden, the same attempt was projected: but, to be explicit, we must transcribe the author's narrative.

'The first line of the duke's army consisted of six regiments of foot. The Royal had the right. On their left stood Cholmondely's, Price's, the Scots fusileers, Monro's, and Burrel's. The second line consisted of the same number of regiments. Howard's regiment had the right; on their left stood Fleming's, Ligonier's, Blyth's, Sempill's, and Wolfe's. The reserve consisted of Blakeney's, Battereau's, and Pulteney's. The duke of Kingston's regiment of light horse, and one squadron of lord Cobham's dragoons, were placed on the right of the first line. Lord Mark Ker's regiment of dragoons, and two squadrons of lord Cobham's, on the left. When the king's army came within five or six hundred paces of the rebel army, part of the ground in their front was so soft and boggy, that the horses which drew the cannon sunk; and were obliged to be taken off: the soldiers, slinging their firelocks, dragged the cannon across the bog. As soon as the cannon were brought to firmer ground, two field pieces, short six pounders, were placed in the intervals between the battalions; and colonel Belford of the artillery, who directed the cannon of the duke's army, began to fire upon the rebels, who, for some time, had been firing upon the king's troops from several batteries; but the cannon of the rebels were very ill served, and did little harm*. The duke's artillery did great execution, making lanes through the Highland regiments. The duke of Cumberland, observing the wall on the right flank of the Highland army, ordered colonel Belford to continue the cannonade, with a view to make the Highlanders leave the ground where they stood, and come down to attack his army. During the cannonade, which began a little after one o'clock, and lasted till near two, the duke made several changes in the disposition of his army. *Wolfe's regiment, which stood on the left of the second line, and extended somewhat beyond the left of the first line, was moved from its place (where the men were standing in water up to their ankles) and brought to the left of the first line, where they wheeled to the right, (and formed en potence, as it is called), making a front to the north, so as to fire upon the flank of the rebels, if they should come down to attack the king's army.* The duke, at the same time, ordered two regiments to move up from the reserve, so that Pulteney's regiment stood on the right of the Royal, which had the right of the first line before, and Battereau's regiment stood on the right of Howard's regiment in the second line. His royal highness,

* One man in Blyth's regiment had his leg carried off by a cannon ball. Not another shot took place.'

after making these changes in the disposition of his army, placed himself between the first and second line, in the front of Howard's regiment.

While these changes were making, colonel Belford observing the body of horse with Charles, ordered two pieces of cannon to be pointed at them; several discharges were made; and some balls broke ground among the horses legs. Charles had his face bespattered with dirt; and one of his servants who stood behind the squadron, with a led horse in his hand, was killed. Meanwhile the cannonade continued, and the Highlanders in the first line, impatient of suffering, without doing any harm to their enemies, grew clamorous to be led on to the attack. A message was sent to Lochiel, whose regiment stood next the Athol brigade, desiring that he would represent to lord George Murray the necessity of attacking immediately. While Lochiel was speaking with lord George, the Macintosh regiment brake* out from the centre of the first line: and advanced against the regiment opposite to them, which was the 21st. But the fire of the field-pieces, and the small arms of the 21st, made the Macintoshes incline to the right, from whence all the regiments to their right, with one regiment to their left, were coming down to the charge. These regiments, joining together, advanced under a heavy fire of cannon (loaded with grape shot)† and musketry in their front, and a flank fire when they came near Wolfe's regiment. Notwithstanding which they still advanced‡, and attacking sword in hand, broke through Burrel's and Monro's in the first line, and pushed on to the second. In the second line immediately behind Burrel's, stood Sempill's regiment, which during the attack had advanced fifty or sixty paces; and their front rank kneeling and presenting, waited till Burrel's men got out of their way. For the soldiers of Burrel's and Monro's did not run directly back, *but went off behind the battalions on their right*. The Highlanders, who had broke through the first line were got close together, without any interval between one clan and another; and the greater part of them came on directly against Sempill's regiment, which allowed them to come very near, and then gave them a terrible fire, that brought a great many of them to the ground, and made most of those who did not fall turn back. A few, and but a few, still pressed on, desperate and furious, to break into Sempill's regiment, which not a man of them ever did, the foremost falling at the end of the soldiers' bayonets.

Blyth's regiment, which was on the right of Sempill's, gave their fire at the same time, and repulsed those that were advancing against them. When the Highland regiments on the right of their first line made this attack, the regiments on the left, the Farquharsons, and

* Before the Macintosh regiment moved, Charles had sent an order to lord George Murray to attack; but lord George never received the order, for Maclauchlan, who carried it, in his way to him, was killed by a cannon ball.

† Colonel Belford had ordered his men to load the field pieces with cannon ball, as long as the Highlanders remained on their ground; but when they advanced to attack the king's army, and came within a proper distance, he ordered his men to load the field-pieces with grape-shot.

‡ The Athol brigade, in advancing, lost thirty-two officers, and was so shattered that it stood short, and never closed with the king's troops.

the three Macdonald regiments, did not advance at the same time, nor attack in the same manner. They came so near the king's army, as to draw upon themselves some fire from the regiments that were opposite to them, which they returned by a general discharge, and the Macdonalds had drawn their swords to attack in the usual manner; but seeing those regiments, that had attacked sword in hand, repulsed and put to flight*, they also went off. When the Highlanders in the first line gave way, the king's army did not pursue immediately. The regiments of foot, from right to left, were ordered to stand upon the ground where they had fought, and dress their ranks. The horse on the right of the king's army were the first that pursued, and they were very near the Macdonalds, when the Irish piquets came down from their place in the second line, and fired upon the dragoons who halted, and the Macdonalds fell back to the second line. The two lines joined, formed a considerable body of men; but their hearts were broken, and their condition was altogether hopeless and irretrievable: in their front they saw the infantry which had defeated them, and reduced their two lines to one, preparing to advance against them. On their right flank, and somewhat behind them, they saw a body of the duke's cavalry† ready to fall upon them as soon as the infantry should advance.' P. 229.

This is a very clear account; but, we apprehend, not free from even material errors. In fact, Wolfe's regiment was not formed *en potence*, previous to the attack; and Barrel's was not either obliged to give way, to retreat, or file between the other battalions. The rebels, as usual, brought their chief force to the left, consisting of their best troops, and the gentlemen attached to the army. With this they attacked the king's right, and broke Barrel's line. But this regiment did *not* retire: they were mixed, bayonet against

* The Macdonald officers said, and Macdonald of Morar (eldest cadet of Clanronald) has left it in writing, that their men were affronted at being deprived of the right (the post of honour), which the Macdonalds had at the battles of Preston and Falkirk, and have had, they say, from time immemorial. The duke of Perth, in the battle of Culloden, stood at the head of the Glengary regiment; and hearing the men murmur (for they murmured aloud), said to them, that if the Macdonalds behaved with their usual valour, they would make a right of the left, and he would call himself Macdonald.

† Before the battle began, that is before the Macintosh regiment advanced against the king's army, general Bland, who commanded the duke's cavalry on the left, ordered two companies of the Argyleshire men, and one company of lord Loudon's regiment, to break down the east wall of the inclosure, whose north wall covered the flank of the rebel army. The three companies of foot pulled down the wall, and entering with the dragoons, put to the sword about 100 men, who had been posted in the inclosure to defend the wall. General Bland then ordered the foot to pull down part of the west wall of the inclosure, which they did, and the dragoons getting out upon the muir, formed at a little distance from the rear of the enemy. General Stapleton observing their position, detached from the second line one of lord Lewis Gordon's regiments, commanded by Gordon of Abbachie, who with his men occupied a piece of ground where there was a hollow way between the dragoons and them. General Bland then ordered the Argyleshire men to go close to the north wall, and fire on the flank of the rebels. The Argyleshire men obeyed him, but received a fire which killed two of their captains and an ensign.

broad-sword; and scarcely a man of Barrel's but had his bayonet bent and bloody. It was the duke's own order, in going down—'Mingle with them, my lads! let them feel your force: be steady, and you will conquer.' Wolfe's regiment was certainly formed, *en potence*, in the course of the action; and gave several volleys in the rear of those contending with Barrel's, which lessened the mass, and enabled the latter to clear themselves more successfully. Sempill's, too, when the confusion was lessened, did good service: but that the whole force of the action fell on Barrel's, is sufficiently proved by the number killed and wounded; for, of 310 killed, wounded, and missing, 125 (more than one-third of the whole) were killed and wounded of Barrel's. An account of an eye-witness merits notice, and we shall select it.

'Robert Nairn, an East Lothian gentleman, and nephew of Mr. Hepburn of Keith, (who has been frequently mentioned in the History) was deputy pay-master of the rebel army. At the battle of Culloden, he advanced with the Athol brigade, which lost so many men by the fire of the king's troops, and the field-pieces loaded with grape-shot, that the brigade was not able to go on, and halted.

'Mr. Nairn left the brigade, when it halted, and joining the next regiment, which was Lochell's, he advanced with the Camerons, who attacked Barrel's regiment, which was so completely broken, that Mr. Nairn, some years after the rebellion, told the author of this History, that he saw only two of Barrel's men standing; one of them was a grenadier, who pushed his bayonet into Mr. Nairn's eye, and brought him to the ground, where he lay all night insensible of his condition, for he had received a good many wounds as he advanced with the brigade. Next day he was carried to Inverness, and by the care of some medical students (his companions at the university) who had been brought from Edinburgh to assist the regimental surgeons in case of a battle, his wounds were cured, and by their help he was enabled to make his escape from Inverness, and get to Edinburgh.' Addendum.

Mr. Nairn seems to have come down at a late hour; and was, by his own account, soon disabled. We cannot, therefore, depend on his description of the state of the regiment. More than one person of Barrel's, still alive, give a very different statement.

We have engaged at length in this question, as constituting a brilliant portion of military history, and an important national concern. It is a subject which has been long familiar to us; and we should not have committed ourselves in confident assertions, without just grounds. Some further remarks on this history will be communicated in our next.

(To be continued.)

ART. IV.—*Travels through Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, to the North Cape. By Joseph Acerbi. (Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 451.)*

WE promised to pursue this work in another article, designing briefly to notice the account of Lapland by Leems, which would not probably occur to us on any other occasion. We promised, however, somewhat unadvisedly; for we did not, at the moment, recollect the æra of Leems's publication, nor that different extracts from it had already appeared in the English language. To many of our readers, it may be, however, unknown; and a short account of it will perhaps not be, on the whole, disagreeable. We shall pass it over somewhat cursorily.

The Laplanders are a Scythian nation, though short in stature, and not very capable of great and continued exertions, except in the occupations to which they are accustomed. Their immediate predecessors were the Samoeids. Their language approaches the Finnish, and is not very unlike the Norwegian or the Hebrew. In fact, it is not immediately derived from either, but is a branch of some original dialect, which has divaricated in so many limbs.

‘The children of the Laplanders are remarkably fat and chubby, which appears not only in their faces, but other parts of their bodies. This disposition to increase in flesh, however, is less perceptible as they grow up. The Laplander is of a swarthy and dark complexion, his hair is black and short, his mouth wide, and his cheeks hollow, with a chin somewhat long and pointed: his eyes are weak and watery, which in some degree proceeds from the constant smoke he endures whilst at home, in his tent or hut; and may likewise be attributed to the snows which, during winter, are constantly driving in his face, whilst he is abroad and engaged in hunting upon the mountains, which afford him no object to fix his eyes upon but what is glaring with whiteness. That this weakness of his eyes proceeds from these causes, and especially the latter, is highly probable, from the circumstance, that a man often loses his sight for several days after his return from hunting.’ Vol. ii. p. 151.

‘They possess a degree of agility which is really wonderful, and their bodies are supple and pliant beyond conception. It is surprising what a number of them are able to stow themselves within a space which we should not imagine would hold half or one third of that quantity. They will sit in the closest contact with each other, their bodies supported by their heels, or their entire weight bearing upon the toes. The American Indians, or savages as they are termed, use the same posture, and the ingenious historical painter, who has represented the treaty of the great Penn with the Indians at the settlement of that flourishing colony which now bears his name, has not

omitted to embellish his picture with the figure of an Indian in this extraordinary attitude.

‘The Laplanders descend the steep sides of a mountain, when covered with snow and ice, with incredible velocity. They make use of a particular kind of snow shoe, differing greatly from that which bears the same name in the northern parts of America: it is a piece of wood of some length, curved before, and turning upwards behind, to the middle of which the foot is fastened; and whereas the snow shoe is calculated for security to prevent a man from sinking into the snow, this wooden shoe or skate, called in the Danish tongue *skie*, answers the purpose both of security and expedition. Accordingly the Laplander slides along with such swiftness, that the air whistles in his ears, and his hair becomes erect with the motion; and yet so dexterous is he in the management of his body, that he his impulse ever so violent, he can take up his cap, if he chances to let it fall, or any thing else that happens to lie in his way, without stopping his course. The children, as soon as they are able to walk, climb up the sides of the mountains, and exercise themselves in the use of these skates.’ Vol. ii. p. 154.

From their infancy, they are accustomed to exertions of every kind, and, from necessity, inured to cold and hunger. They are truly religious; and their conduct is, in general, strictly moral:—the only exception is a little commercial *finesse*.

The descriptions of the dress and habitations of the Laplanders scarcely admit of abridgement, and are not subjects very interesting at this time. Their diet is chiefly the rein-deer's milk. They eat, however, animal food of every kind, except pork. Fish dried and dipped in train-oil, without dressing, is also no uncommon aliment. Bread is eaten very sparingly, and not fermented. Their luxuries are the inner part of fir-tree, smoked and dipped in train-oil; the root and leaves of angelica, and berries, mellowed by remaining, during the winter, in the snow; but, above all, tobacco. Their household furniture is scanty and unexpensive, to be removed without trouble or inconvenience.

The description of the rein-deer, and their indispensable utility to the Laplander, is sufficiently extensive and satisfactory. The chief circumstances are, however, well known: some facts, which are less so, we shall transcribe.

‘The greatest enemy of the rein-deer is the wolf, and it requires the utmost diligence and circumspection of the people to guard and defend their herds against the insidious attacks of this inveterate and cunning foe. They endeavour to affright and keep him off by means of stakes driven into the earth, having pieces of worn-out and tattered tunicks and other garments hanging on them: but it is chiefly during any violent storm that they have occasion to be most vigilant; for at that time this depredator is on the look out for an opportunity to invade the timorous herd: in the moment of alarm, every one of the

Laplander's household is then put in motion, some to look to the rein-deer, whilst others make a loud noise by beating with sticks against a sledge, brought without the tent for that purpose: and, indeed, there is a necessity for the greatest precaution on the part of the Laplanders, because the same rein-deer is so simple an animal, that if not carefully protected, it becomes an easy prey to the wolf. No sooner is that voracious beast discovered by the herd, than the silly creatures, instead of running towards the tents, and putting themselves under the safeguard of men, fly towards the woods, where some are overtaken and killed by the wolf, who is observed to use his utmost endeavours to keep betwixt them and the tents when he finds them feeding at a distance. In this pursuit the wolf has the advantage of the rein-deer when they are running down hill, and he is sure to overtake and seize it: but it is not the same up hill. If the wolf catch the rein-deer by the haunch, it often happens that the deer escapes; and when he obtains his prey, it is generally by fastening on its throat, by which means he strangles the poor animal in a short time. The missionary says, he saw six at one time lying on the snow, killed by wolves who had been driven away on the alarm being given: upon examination of the carcasses, no wound appeared to have been inflicted, so dexterously had these destructive enemies effected their purpose. It is observable, that the wolf never devours his prey on the spot where he kills it, but drags it away to some distance; and it is further remarked, the missionary tells us, that in devouring it, he places the head towards the east; at least, he says, the skeletons are always found in the woods placed in that position. I cannot say that I give entire credit to this report: probably the good missionary has been misinformed. Whilst the wolves are on the hunt for their prey, they appear always to be accompanied by a number of crows and ravens, and the Laplanders are commonly apprized of the wolf's approach by the clamour of these birds. It has been noticed, that such rein-deer as were fastened by ropes to a stake have been spared, whilst others that were at liberty have been carried off: this must be owing to a fear conceived by the wolf at the sight of the animal's tether, or to some similar cause; for the like has not happened, when the deer has broken loose and betaken himself to flight.' Vol. ii. p. 195.

The description of the wandering Laplanders is necessarily more concise; and the great singularity is, that, by night as well as day, they can find the spot to which they are bound, though the ground is one undistinguished sheet of snow, and the sky clouded by a constant storm. The good missionary mentions but one fatal accident which had happened during his ten years' residence among the Laplanders.

Among the quadrupeds of Lapland, the wild rein-deer are particularly mentioned, and the manner of hunting them minutely described. Bears are said to live chiefly on berries and grass; so that they eat animal food only from necessity, and in the winter. Foxes are common in Lapland, as well as the glutton and beaver. The idle tales of

the former of the two last, squeezing itself between two trees, to disgorge its superabundant meal, and of the extraordinary sagacity of the latter, are generally disbelieved. Other quadrupeds are not so peculiar as to require our notice.

Of the birds, the Lapland woodcock is remarkable; for, though it inhabits this country only in the summer, its winter habitation is not known. The only birds that stay in Lapland during the winter, are the strix and tetrao.

‘ I have, in the course of this work, mentioned more than once the songs of the birds, with which the woods of Lapland re-echo. I have often been astonished to hear in these places birds sing very charmingly, which I had before considered as mute, and totally deprived by nature of all vocal power. The *motacilla trochilus* of Linnæus, which comes to Italy about autumn, is in Lombardy called *tui*, because its short and abrupt cry bears a resemblance to this sound: but the same bird may justly be termed the nightingale of the north. It settles on the most lofty branches of the birch-trees, and makes the air resound with accents melodious, bold, and full of harmony. This is likewise the case with the *emberiza geniclos*, which has a clear and strong voice, and animates with its musical notes the shades of the alder and willow-trees, that grow by the sides of the brooks and rivers.

‘ But there is another bird, which more highly deserves our admiration, as it surpasses all the rest by the beauty of its plumage and the sweetness of its voice: this is the *motacilla Suecica*. It lives in the bushes of marshy places, and particularly likes to perch on the dwarf-birch (*betula nana*, Linn.); its flight is generally low: it makes its nest in the moss, and lays between five and seven eggs, of a greenish colour, nearly resembling that of the moss, with which they are surrounded. It feeds on insects and worms, and I have seen several of them with caterpillars in their beaks, which were destined for their young. The Laplanders call this bird *saddan kiallinen*, which signifies *hundred tongues*, and expresses the nature of its song; for this constantly varies, and is an imitation of the voices of almost all the other birds. To the beauty of its notes it joins that of its feathers, which are of a sky blue colour, bordered about the throat with a black line, and after that with one of a rusty appearance. It seems as if nature, charmed with the melodious excellence of the song, had been willing to embellish even the outside of the organ that produced it, in order to render her work quite perfect.’ Vol. ii. p. 224.

The missionary gives this bird the preference to the nightingale, as less shrill, and perhaps, on the whole, possessing a greater variety of voice. Our author particularly describes the Lapland owl, as well as the Lapland crow; and figures of each are subjoined.

The fishes of Lapland offer little novelty, and no remarks of importance. Mr. Acerbi describes the whale as particularly voracious: it is however, by many, scarcely ranked among the animals of prey. The list of insects is peculiarly

extensive; and a great number of the rarest species are engraved in three plates. A list of the plants most peculiar to Lapland, in order to direct and concentrate the attention of the botanist, for himself or friends, is added. Many seem not to occur in the *Flora Laponica*; but we are unable to pursue the subject minutely.

'The berry of the *rubus arcticus*, when sufficiently ripened, is superior in fragrance and flavour to the strawberry and raspberry, and to all fruit of the same kind, even what we have in Italy. A small plateful would scent an apartment with a more exquisite sweetness than any perfume I know of. It is singular that so delicious a production should be found in the north. They preserve it in Sweden, and it makes one of the most delicate sweetmeats. Linnæus speaks of this fruit in high terms of praise, and says, that it often refreshed him in his travels through Lapland, when he was overwhelmed with fatigue.

'The *rubus chamæmorus* is also used for preserves. It grows plentifully in Lapland, especially in marshy situations. The berry of this plant is yellowish, and nearly of the same shape as the raspberry, but larger in size, and more insipid in taste. We, however, thought it delicious when we found it in our walks through the bogs of Lapland.

'I am of opinion that the *diapensia Laponica*, and the *axalea procumbens*, should be reckoned among the indigenous plants, properly so called. I have found both in flower on the top of very high mountains, where all other vegetation seemed to cease, and nothing was to be seen besides the *lichen rangiferinus*.' Vol. ii. p. 261.

From Tornea to Ketkemando, the travelers meet with firs, pines, and birches. Beyond Ketkemando, the firs disappear. From Kautokeino to the mountains, the pines are lost; and nothing but birches are seen, except about Alten, where a few pines again are found.

The list of minerals is extensive, and communicated on the authority of M. Hyelm, from the specimens contained in the collection of the commissioners of the mines at Stockholm. We wish the appellations of some mineralogist later than Mr. Kirwan had been preferred. We trust that, in future, every mineralogist will give the names adopted by prince Gallitzin, in the late edition of his *Recueil de Noms appropriés en Minéralogie*, as that collection contains all the synonyms, and is adapted to the nomenclature of Haüy*.

On the subject of manufactures and customs, we have little to remark. We were surprised to hear that music and dancing were unknown to the Laplanders in any festival; that 'they are not even acquainted with the use of any one

* We propose to give some account of this very useful work in our next Appendix.

musical instrument,' and 'incapable of learning to sing in tune.'

Of the diseases and remedies of the Laplanders, we shall say little. The tooth-ach they have lately attempted to cure with seal's blood, drank warm : for incipient cataract, they insert a living *pediculus humanus* beneath the eye-lid, whose irritation they think will destroy the membrane. It may be effectual, by exciting inflammation. The sinew of the fore-leg of a rein-deer is applied to strained ancles. This is not very distant from the medicines employed by their more enlightened neighbours a hundred and fifty years since. Their former religion was idolatrous ; and a curious, but not very interesting, list of their divinities, with their appropriate offices and abodes, is subjoined. The Lapland sacrifices, and the pretensions of the Laplanders to magic, are next noticed. The Laplander's attachment to his country is not to be shaken—perhaps with reason, as those who have been brought thence have soon died. Observations on the climate of different places, from the flowering of plants and the appearance of the birds, conclude the volume.—The appendix contains only specimens of the Lapland and Finland music, with the diary of the author's journey.

On the whole, we have perused this work with satisfaction : yet doubts have occasionally arisen ; and suspicions will always intrude, where we converse with an author through the medium of an interpreter, however faithful he may be. We often perceive the marks of two pens ; and sometimes we suspect that we can draw the line between them. This, however, must be suspicion only. The errors, if any exist, are certainly not numerous ; and the information to be obtained from these volumes is equally valuable and extensive.

ART. V. — *General Zoölogy, or Systematic Natural History.*
By George Shaw, M. D. F. R. S. &c. (Continued from p. 43,
of our present Volume.)

THE order of serpents is peculiarly distinguished by the want of feet ; and their locomotion is owing to their scales contracting over each other and again expanding, or to the contortion of the animal. The more striking distinctions which constitute the genera are, on the whole, sufficiently clear ; but those of the species are less obvious. We may indeed remark, that, with the exception of plants, species are not easily ascertained ; and even in the more perfect animals, where the production of the offspring can be observed, we are not without difficulties. In the present order, the di-

stinction is still more arduous; and, in the lower, the minuter arrangement is extremely obscure. Linnæus adopted the number of scaly plates on the abdomen and beneath the tail, as an infallible criterion.

‘The colour is indeed often variable, but the pattern, or general distribution of markings in each species, appears to be more constant: the relative size of the head, the length of the body and tail, the size, smoothness, or roughness of the scales, as well as their shape in different parts of the animal, often afford pretty certain specific marks.

‘The distinction of serpents into poisonous and innoxious can only be known by an accurate examination of their teeth; the fangs or poisoning teeth being always of a tubular structure, and calculated for the conveyance or injection of the poisonous fluid from a peculiar reservoir communicating with the fang on each side of the head: the fangs are always situated in the anterior and exterior part of the upper jaw, and are generally, but not always, of much larger size than the other teeth; they are also frequently accompanied by some smaller or subsidiary fangs, apparently destined to supply the principal ones when lost either by age or accident. The fangs are situated in a peculiar bone, so articulated with the rest of the jaw as to elevate or depress them at the pleasure of the animal: in a quiescent state they are recumbent, with their points directed inwards or backwards; but when the animal is inclined to use them as weapons of offence, their position is altered by the peculiar mechanism of the above-mentioned bone in which they are rooted, and they become almost perpendicular.’ P. 314.

Dr. Gray has given an excellent rule to determine the existence or non-existence of the poisonous organs in the Philosophical Transactions for 1788. Poisonous serpents have the head generally covered with small scales. Carinated scales on the head are equally a mark of the noxious race; but, to each, there are some exceptions. The poisonous serpents are also, in general, viviparous; the others, oviparous.

The generic character of the first groupe, *viz.* the *Crotalus*, is adopted from Linnæus; but the specific distinctions are generally taken from the colour and the bands. The *C. horridus* is the first species, and described at great length. The animal dissected by Dr. Tyson was, in our author's opinion, the *C. durissus*, the second species. The *C. dryinas* and *miliarius* follow. No new species occurs.

The next genus is the *boa*, a vast animal, one of which terrified the whole Roman army. It is diffused over the torrid zone, and is not the creature of a single country. It is the serpent which is said to swallow a buffalo, after having covered it with slime, which dissolves or softens the hardest parts, so as to accommodate them to the animal's mouth. It appears to be gradually digested, and the different parts only to be swallowed in turn. To the Linnæan species, charac-

terised from the colour and stripes, are added the *boa regia*, from Seba, resembling the *boa canina* and *Phrygia*, the *Ibiboboca* and *boiguae* of the Brasilians; a very elegant species—the *B. Phrygia*—the ‘*serpens phyticus Orientalis gerende dictus*’ of the same author; and the crotaline *boa*, removed from the genus *crotalus*, in consequence of its wanting the rattle. From Russel, we find the *B. fasciata* (*bungarum pamah*), the *B. lineata* (*geedi paragoodoo*), the *B. horatta* (*horatta pam*), particularly described; and from Seba, the Siamese *boa*, with the trivial name of *hipnale*. The *boa palpebrosa* is copied from Merrem, and the *B. annulata* from madame Merian.

The genus *coluber* is peculiarly extensive, and might perhaps conveniently admit of being broken into two or more genera. Of the common viper, our author speaks at some length; and seems to admit the opinion, that the animal receives its young into its mouth, when in danger—resembling, in this respect, the rattle-snake. The black viper—the *C. Prester* of Linnæus—is considered as a variety of the common. The American black viper, on the contrary, is described as a new species, with the trivial name of *cacodæmon*. The account of the Egyptian viper, as short, we shall transcribe.

‘ Egyptian Viper.

- ‘ *Coluber Vipera. C. subferrugineus, fusco maculatus, subtus albidus, cauda brevi mucronata.*
- ‘ Subferruginous Viper, spotted with brown, beneath whitish, with short mucronated tail.
- ‘ *Coluber Vipera. Lin. Syst. Nat. p. 275. Hasselq. itin. p. 340.*
- ‘ Abdominal scuta 118, subcaudal scales 22.

‘ This, which is said to be the officinal viper of the Egyptians, seems to have been first accurately described by Hasselquist, who informs us that it is imported in considerable quantities every year to Venice for the use of the apothecaries in the composition of the theriaca, &c. Its size is somewhat smaller than that of the common viper: the head not so flat on the top, but very protuberant on each side: the snout very obtuse: the body thick towards the middle, and somewhat quadrangular, but thin and cylindric towards the head and tail, which latter is short, slender, conical, and terminated by a slightly incurved horny point or tip: the scales on all the upper parts of the animal are oval and carinated: the colour above is pale-ferruginous with darker spots, and beneath entirely whitish: the usual length of this species, according to Hasselquist, is about two spans and an inch, of which the tail measures only an inch. This is by some supposed to be the asp of Cleopatra, by the bite of which that high-spirited princess determined to die, rather than submit to be carried to Rome in order to grace the triumph of Augustus. It seems, however, utterly impossible to determine this point. Mr. Bruce, as the reader will find

in the description of the *cerastes*, rather supposes that serpent to have been the species employed. Mr. Schneider, in his work, entitled "*Historia Amphibiorum*," considers the Egyptian viper above described to be the true *dipsas* of the ancients which was popularly reported to kill by thirst.' p. 377.

The viper described by Charas, in his *New Experiments*, is supposed to be a distinct species, from its wanting the dorsal band, the distinguishing characteristic of the common viper, with which it has been confounded, as well as from the erect sub-acuminated lip of the snout. The history of the coluber *cerastes* is greatly enlarged from Bruce, who supposes it, as already observed, to be the asp which Cleopatra chose as the instrument of her suicide. The horn-nose snake, a species unknown to systematic authors, was first noticed in that admirable work, *The Naturalist's Miscellany*; and the plate, with the description, are copied thence. We shall select a part.

' The snake here represented adds to the number of those malignant reptiles whose bite, in the hotter regions of the globe, proves the dreadful forerunner of a speedy and painful death. If at the first glance of most of the serpent tribe an involuntary sort of horror and alarm is so often felt by those who are unaccustomed to the examination of these animals, how much greater dread must the unexpected view of the species here exhibited be supposed to inflict? when to the general form of the creature is superadded the peculiar fierceness and forbidding torvity with which nature has marked its countenance; distinguished by the very uncommon appearance of two large and sharp-pointed horns, situated, not as in the *cerastes*, above the eyes, but on the top of the nose or anterior part of the upper jaw. These horns stand nearly upright, but incline slightly backwards and a little outwards on each side, and are of a substance not absolutely horny, but in some degree flexible: their shape is somewhat triangular or three-sided: they are about half an inch in length, and at the fore part of the base of each stands an upright strong scale, of nearly the same shape with the horn itself, and thus giving the appearance of a much smaller pair of horns. The mouth is furnished with extremely large and long fangs or tubular teeth, situated as in other poisonous serpents, and capable of inflicting the most severe wounds: two of these fangs appear on each side of the mouth; the hinder pair being smaller than the others. The length of this animal is about thirty-five inches. Its colour is a yellowish olive-brown, very thickly sprinkled all over with minute blackish specks: along the whole length of the back is placed a series of yellowish-brown oblong spots or marks, each of which is imbedded in a patch of black; and on each side of the body, from head to tail, runs an acutely-flexuous or zigzag line or narrow band of an ochre-colour: this band is bounded beneath by a much deeper or blacker shade, than on the rest of the body: the belly is of a dull ochre-colour or cinereous yellow, freckled with blackish spots and markings; and besides these a number of black spots of different

sizes are here and there dispersed over the whole animal. The tail is somewhat thin and short in proportion to the body. The scales of this species are harsh and stiff, and are very strongly carinated. The head is covered with small scales, and is marked on its upper part by a very large longitudinal patch of brown, running out into pointed processes at the sides, and bounded by a space of dull lead-colour or cinereous. The shape of the head is broad and flattened: the cheeks are varied with blackish and yellow marks.' p. 397.

The coluber Clotho ('vipera bitin Ceilonica') is taken from Seba: and the C. Lachesis ('serpens Ceilonica bitin dicta') from the same author. A variety of the C. Lachesis, from Seba, is added. The C. Alecto, a native of Ceylon—the 'ammodytes' of that island—is also noticed from Seba; the C. Tisiphone from Catesby; and the C. Megæra is the yellow Martinico snake ('la vipère fer-de-lance') from La Cépède: the last is a most formidable animal, though improperly designated as a yellow serpent. The C. naja is the celebrated cobra de capello, called, by our author, the spectacle snake, from the figure of a pair of spectacles on the back of its neck; and a very particular account of the violent effects of its poison is added from Dr. Russell's very valuable work.

A new species, described by Dr. Russell, is properly distinguished by his name. It is the katuka rekula poda of the Hindûs. Its poison is peculiarly virulent. Another new species, from Dr. Russell, is the C. gramineus (boodroo pam). The bull-headed snake, C. Bucephalus, is described from Seba. New Holland has furnished the crimson-sided snake, the C. porphyriacus, which is now found to be poisonous, though formerly supposed innoxious, in consequence of the mutilation of the specimen. The hæmachæte snake is from Seba, noticed by La Cépède, who informs us that it is poisonous. Catesby has furnished the account of the C. aquaticus, resembling the rattle-snake, and equally dangerous; Seba that of the C. breviceps, which he calls 'serpens porphyrius Brasiliensis'; of the coluber elegantissimus, the superb snake, which he styles 'serpens lemniscata venustissima Americana'; of some of the supposed varieties of the common viper, particularly the hyæna of the Greeks, the boiquatrara of the Indians, the malpalan of the Ceylonese, and the serenus of the Brasilians.

The Argus snake is admitted into the System of Nature by Linnæus, though he was unacquainted with the number of its scuta or squamæ. This is a Brazilian serpent, though the same appellation be given to a very rare species from Guinea, called by our author the C. ocellatus. The Chiametla snake is a new species from Seba; and the Java snake was

first described by M. Wurmb, in the Memoirs of the Batavian Society. The Daboya, the Brazilian, the triangular-headed, and the panther snakes are taken from La Cépède; the leopard snake from Seba; and an undescribed species, the *C. maculatus*, from a specimen in the British Museum.

The *C. atrovirens* is now separated from the *C. natrix*, with which it has been usually confounded: it is the *anguis Æsculapii niger* of Aldrovandus: the *C. elaphis* is the *elaphis* of the same author; and the *C. Æsculapii his anguis Æsculapii vulgaris*. Many probable varieties of the *C. pullatus* are annexed from Seba; and the *C. macrolepidotus*, described from a specimen in Dr. Hunter's museum, also greatly resembles the *pullatus*. We have, as usual, avoided particularly noticing the species described by Linnaeus, not to extend our article too far.

The *C. acontia* (cupreous snake), *C. Surinamensis* (cine-reous snake), the *C. textilis* (*ammodytes Americana flammea*) *C. meleagris*, the *C. viperinus*, *C. platurinus* (*millio dict.*), *C. graphicus*, *C. ornatus*, are described from Seba; the *coluber Carolinianus* (the corn snake), and *C. flagellum*, are from Catesby.

New Spain furnishes the pearl-coloured snake, called the *iztag*, Bœotia the marbled snake, Africa the *C. ammobates*, Ceylon the *C. crucifer*, and Peru the black and white snake, with a rose-coloured abdomen (*C. Peruvianus*). These species have not yet been noticed in any modern system. The Hygeian snake is a native of Siam, described by Seba, and noticed by Merrem; and the chequered snake is the *petlacoatl* of the Mexicans, figured by the former author.

The red-throated snake (*C. jugularis*) was described by Hasselquist; and the Cape snake, as well as the cobra *Americana*, by Seba. The Australasian snake is a new species, first noticed by Mr. White. The *C. cursor* (the swift snake) from La Cépède; the *hickanella* of the Americans from La Cépède; the *C. boæformis* (*pedda poda* and *bora*) from Russell.

The *coluber Austriacus* was first remarked by Laurenti, whose account was copied by La Cépède, and who called it *La Lisse*. The *catenated* snake is a new species, described from an animal preserved in the British Museum. The *beataen* and the *hoelleik* snakes are taken from Forskal: the *coluber jara*, *arnensis*, *sagittatus*, *striatus*, and *fasciolatus*, from Russell. The *C. melanotus* (the black-sided snake), and the *C. elegans*, are copied from Seba: the latter is the *S. catenata* of New Spain. The *C. tæniatus*, *octolineatus*,

and decorus, are copied from specimens in the British Museum. M. la Cépède has furnished the *C. bilineatus*, the *C. gemmatus*, and the *C. trilineatus*; and Seba the *C. intestinalis*. The *C. trifasciatus* is described from a specimen in Dr. Hunter's museum.

The serpens *Ægyptiaca bochir dicta*, and the Brazilian serpent, *iberacoa*—probably varieties of some of the Linnæan lineated species—are noticed from Seba's work. The *C. mycterizans* is taken from Catesby; and some varieties are brought from Russell's valuable volume: the green serpent from Java, and the serpens *canora purpurea Cæcuba* of Seba, are probably varieties also of this species. The *C. æstivus* is from Catesby, the *C. melanurus* from Russell, and the *C. torquatus* from Edwards.

We have engaged in this long, and (we fear) tedious, account of the author's numerous additions to the species of coluber, to point out the extent of our obligations to him. We could have wished that they had been divided into families; and, had we room, could point out some general distinctions for this purpose. Dr. Shaw's definitions, as we have said, are taken from the marks; the trivial names of Linnæus are carefully preserved, and the new ones characteristically appropriated. On the whole, the very ample and extensive information conveyed in the account of this genus would alone have established Dr. Shaw's credit as a naturalist, had every other testimony been wanting.

The *hydrus* is a new genus, chiefly selected from the angues. It was first established by Schneider, who has admitted two species which more properly belong to the *acrochordus*, and are restored to that genus by Dr. Shaw. They include all the water-snakes; and the first species, the *hydrus colubrinus*, is the coluber *laticaudatus* of Linnæus: the second—the *hydrus Caspius* of Schneider—is also a coluber in the Linnæan system, with the trivial name of *hydrus*, though approaching more nearly an *anguis*. The *H. major*, *gracilis*, *cœrulescens*, *spiralis*, and *curtus*, are from specimens in the British Museum. The *H. fasciatus* of Schneider (the *tattapam* of India) is described by Dr. Russell. The *hydrus bicolor* is the *anguis platura* of Linnæus, represented in Seba's work as a rare Mexican serpent, and by Russell under the name *nalla wahlagille pam*. The *H. atrocœruleus* (*H. enydris* of Schneider; the *H. cinereus* (*H. rynchops* of Schneider); the *H. piscator* and *palustris*, both of Shaw and Schneider, are also described by Dr. Russell.

The new genus, of which there is only a single species, we shall describe in our author's own words.

‘ *Langaya*. *Langaya*.

‘ Generic character.

‘ Scuta abdominalia.

Annuli caudales.

Squamæ terminales.

Abdominal plates.

Caudal rings.

Terminal scales.

‘ Snouted *Langaya*.‘ *Langaya Nasuta*. *L. maxilla superiore rostrata*.‘ *Langaya* with the upper jaw produced in form of a snout.‘ *Langaha*. *Bruguiere. Journ. de Physique*, 1784. *Cépède Ovip.* 2. p. 469.

‘ Abdominal scales 184, caudal rings 42.

‘ The genus *langaya*, consisting of a single species only, differs from all the rest of the serpent tribe in having the upper part or beginning of the tail marked into complete rings or circular divisions resembling those on the body of the *amphisbæna*, while the extreme or terminal part is covered with small scales, as in the genus *anguis*.

‘ The *langaya nasuta*, or long-snouted *langaya*, is a native of Madagascar, and appears to have been first described by Mons. Bruguiere of the Royal Society of Montpellier, whose account of it is inserted in the *Journal de Physique* for the year 1784. The length of the individual described was about two feet eight inches, and its greatest diameter about seven lines: the head is covered with large scales, but the snout, which is extremely long and sharp, projecting to a considerable distance beyond the lower jaw, is covered with very small scales: the teeth, in shape and disposition, resemble those of a viper: the scales on the upper parts of the body are rhomboidal, of a reddish colour, and each marked at the base by a small grey circle, with a yellow spot in the middle: the under parts are pale or whitish: the number of abdominal scuta, as well as of circles on the tail, is observed to vary in this snake, as is also the colour, which in one individual was violet, with darker coloured specks on the back. The natives of Madagascar are said to hold the *langaya* in great dread, considering it as a highly poisonous serpent.’ P. 571.

The genus *acrochordus* was first established by the discovery of a peculiar snake in the island of Java, described in the Swedish Transactions by Mr. Hornsted; and the *acrochordus dubius*, from a specimen in the British Museum, does not very essentially differ from it. The *A. fasciatus* is pretty certainly the *hydrus granulatus* of Schneider. The specimen is from the British Museum.

The *anguis* is a genus well known, and it has not received many additions. The *A. leuconelas*—the Brazilian tetrazuh-coatl—and two kinds of the *amphisbæna* of Amboyna, are reduced to this genus from Seba. The *A. nasuta* is a species unknown to systematics, from the Berlin Memoirs: and the *A. Jamaicensis* of Dr. Shaw seems to be the *A. lumbricalis* of

Linnaeus. Two others, imperfectly described by Russell and Seba, are annexed to this genus, but have no specific characters.

The *amphisbæna* connects, in some degree, the *anguis* and *lacertæ*. Two species only are known, and these occur in the Linnæan system. The genus *cæcilia* admits also of no additions. Our author's concluding observations anticipate, in some measure, our remarks; and we shall prefer his own more concise and scientific language.

'I cannot conclude the enumeration of the serpent tribe without observing, that this branch of natural-history still requires much elucidation, and is, perhaps, of all others, the most liable to errors and uncertainties. The Linnæan characters of these animals, in the *Systema Naturæ*, are, from their extreme brevity, but ill calculated for general information, nor can it be surprising that they should now be considered as constituting little more than a mere series of memorandums relative to abdominal and subcaudal scales; while many of the most remarkable serpents in the works of Scheuchzer and Seba, seem to have been entirely neglected, apparently for no other reason than that the number of these parts could not be ascertained: as if the external form and colours of the animals were of no importance in the specific character. On this subject the observations of Mr. Schneider appear to be perfectly just.

"*Ingenia curiosorum primus acuit Linnaeus ad investigandas corporum naturalium atque animalium notas; verum postquam accedente philosophia et zootomia pomœria scientiæ naturalis multo latius promota fuerunt, raro curiosorum lectorum desiderio satisfaciunt brevès amphibiorum notationes singulis speciebus in systemate Linnæano appositæ.*"

'Mr. Schneider goes on to observe, that, unless a more ample mode of description be adopted, there is reason to apprehend that the authority of the Linnæan characters of the amphibia, and of serpents in particular, will become entirely obsolete.' P. 598.

In the appendix the dubious amphibia are described. These are the sirens, of which our author communicates all that is hitherto known. The first siren, and that lately described by Schreibers, in the *Philosophical Transactions*, have been already noticed at sufficient length in this journal. The siren *pisciformis*, of the *Naturalist's Miscellany*, is added; and to this Dr. Shaw thinks the animal described by M. Beauvois, in the late volume of the *American Transactions*, to be nearly allied. Another from Lake Champlain seems not very different. On the disputed point, whether it be a perfect animal or a larva, Dr. Shaw does not decide; he seems to lean to the former opinion.

ART. VI.—*An Essay on War, in Blank Verse; Honington Green, a Ballad; the Culprit, an Elegy; and other Poems, on various Subjects: by Nathaniel Bloomfield.* 12mo. 4s. Boards. Hurst. 1803.

A VOLUME of poems by the brother of Robert Bloomfield, author of the *Farmer's Boy*, will not be opened, without some apprehension that no affinity of genius may exist, notwithstanding their consanguinity. Yet the perfections, as well as the imperfections, of the mind have sometimes been hereditary; and the moral, as well as the physical, features discover a family likeness.

This volume, also, is introduced by a preface from Mr. Capel Lofft.

'Whoever' (he says) 'has read the preface to the *Farmer's Boy* will hardly fail of recollecting the name of Nathaniel Bloomfield; the author of the poems here offered to the public.

'It will be recollected that he there appears, with his brother George Bloomfield, standing in the place of the father, whom they had early lost, to their younger brother Robert.

'It is natural to suppose that this brotherly interference, and its consequences, greatly and advantageously influenc'd the dispositions, pursuits, and habits of thought and conduct, of all three of the brothers.—And it is the more exemplary when it is consider'd how young the two eldest were at that time.

'It is an encouraging instance how much may be effected for each other by the poor and uneducated, if they have prudence, activity, and kind affections; and how unexpectedly, and to an extent far beyond apparent probability, success is given by Providence to virtuous and benevolent efforts.

'Beyond question, the brothers of this family are all extraordinary men; and perhaps every one of them is more so than he would have been without the fraternal concord which has animated them all, and multiplied the powers of all by union and sympathy.' P.V.

The history of the author's life is short: he was apprenticed to a taylor in the country; and, when his time expired, came to London, where his brother George resided. It was some years before he could procure work enough here to support him through the *dead* months: on which account, when trade was dull in town, he used to go into the country.

'And thus, while at Woolwich, he became acquainted with Charlotte Noble, whom he married 4th March, 1787; he being then in his 28th, and she in her 17th year. Her mother was a widow: who kept a small general shop. Her brother-in-law George, in speaking of this union, says, "There perhaps never liv'd a woman who possess'd a better temper: and he has, though very poor, been exceedingly happy." For myself, I wish, in transcribing this account, that those who think riches so essential to happiness that they will take no

step in life, nor suffer their hearts or their understandings to have any influence with them, if the acquisition of riches seems likely to be delayed or endanger'd, would consider that the family of the Bloomfields has been happy, and has excell'd, upon very different principles. And if we would compare the thousands in every situation of life to whom what is called *prosperity* is a snare, a burthen and a curse, with those who are happy with mere necessities, and those with difficulty obtain'd;—happy by their affections and their virtues; by improv'd and generous and tender feelings; by hope amid difficulties, and confidence in heaven amid trials and distresses,—it might be seen and felt that there is more of folly in the wisdom of the world, than those who place wisdom in the accumulation of superfluities, to the neglect of the most natural blessings, and often in violation of the clearest duties, either of justice or of benevolence, may be willing to acknowledge.
P. ix.

One of the most interesting poems in this volume is founded upon such reflexions as these: its title is 'Love's Triumph.'

- ' Doth poverty create the fears
That o'er your love their shadows fling!—
The silence of those falling tears
Confesses all the truth I sing.
- ' O! Mary, let not empty shew,
Let not the pride of gaudy dress,
Thus cloud thy morn of life with woe,
And blight it's future happiness.
- ' Trust the monition Baldwin gave,
Our future bliss it's truth shall prove,
Life's cares the lovers who dare brave,
Shall find their rich reward in love:
- ' Baldwin, the hoary-headed bard,
I still consult when cares annoy:
He own'd for me a fond regard;
And calls me still his darling boy.
- ' His mind is fraught with spoils of time;
He's wise and good, though known to few:
He gave me this advice in rhyme,
And here I'll read the song to you:—
- " Though envious Age affects to deem thee boy,
Lose not one day, one hour, of proffer'd bliss;
In youth grasp every unoffending joy,
And wing'd with rapture snatch the bridal kiss.
- " Let not this chief of blessings be deferr'd,
Till you your humble fortunes can improve;
None's poor but he, by sordid fears deterr'd,
Who dares not claim the matchless wealth of Love,

" Virtue can make most rich thy little store ;
 Virtue can make most bright thy lowly state :
 Murmur not then that virtuous thou art poor,
 While prosperous vice can make men rich and great.

" The bad man may, his every sense to please,
 Each soft indulging luxury employ :
 The plenitude of elegance and ease
 He may possess ; but never can enjoy.

" No—though his goods, and flocks, and herds abound ;
 His wide demesne to fair profusion grown ;
 Though proud his lofty mansion looks around,
 On hills, and fields, and forests, all his own :

" Tho' this may tempt thee, murmuring to complain,
 With conscience clear, and life void of offence,
 Verily, then, I've cleans'd my heart in vain ;
 In vain have washed my hands in innocence."

" Yet could'st thou closely mark the envied man,
 See how desires ungovern'd mar his peace ;
 Or had'st thou power his inward mind to scan,
 How soon in pity would thy envy cease !

" The active life of labour gives no room
 To that dull spleen the indolent endure ;
 Generous cares dispel our mental gloom,
 And Industry is Melancholy's cure.

" Repine not then, that low thy lot is cast ;
 Health gives to life or high or low it's zest ;
 'Tis appetite that seasons our repast,
 And weariness still finds the softest rest.

" For all thy blessings thankfulness to wake,
 Think of less cultur'd lands, less peaceful times ;
 Our coarsest fare, when sparingly we take,
 'Tis luxury, compar'd with other climes.

" Think of the poor Greenlanders' dismal caves,
 Where thro' their long, long night they buried lie ;
 Or the more wretched lands where hapless slaves
 Hopelessly toil beneath the fervid sky.

" In Britain—blest with peace and competence,
 Rich Fortune's favours would impart no more :—
 Heaven's blessings equal happiness dispense ;
 Believe my words, for I am old and poor.

" Many who drudge in Labour's roughest ways,
 By whom life's simplest, lowliest walks are trod,
 Happily live, to honor'd length of days,
 Blessing kind nature, and kind nature's God."

- ' What think you, is sage Baldwin right?
Should spring-tide love endure delay?
And shall our bliss be seal'd ere night?
Say, lovely Mary, softly say?
- ' Why starts my love?—why rise to go?
Will Mary then my suit deny?
Sweet is the smile that answers, No!
By Heaven, there's rapture in her eye!' P. 74.

When a boy, Nathaniel Bloomfield was fond of church music—one of the great consolations, as Mr. Lofft calls it, of energetic and pensive minds. Tillotson's Sermons seem to have been the first work which interested and materially impressed him: the Night Thoughts, of which he made a chance purchase at a stall, first awakened his love of poetry: his memory was very retentive; and he used to repeat great part of these poems in his walks with his brothers. The success of his brother Robert encouraged him to attempt a longer poem than any he had before composed. This is of a very different character and tendency from the one whence we have just quoted: it is an Essay on War; and its principle is explained in these lines, which are, perhaps, a specimen of its best powers.

' Advanc'd Society's prudential laws,
The moral virtues of the enlighten'd mind,
And all the ties of Interest and of Love,
In vain conspire to nurse their favourite Peace,
And banish dire Immanity and War.
Strong Nature's bent, continual increase,
Still counteracts Humanity's fond wish,
The perpetuity of Peace, and Love;
Alas! progressive increase cannot last.
Soon mourns the encumber'd land it's human load:
Too soon arrives the inauspicious hour;
The natal hour of the unhappy man,
Who all his life goes mourning up and down
That there is neither bough, nor mud, nor straw
That he may take to make himself a hut;
No, not in all his native land a twig
That he may take, nor spot of green grass turf,
Where without trespass he may set his foot.
Now Want and Poverty wage war with Love;
And hard the conflict: horrible the thought,
That Love, who boasts of his all-conquering impulse,
Should have to mourn abortive energies—
But in proportion as mankind increase,
So evils multiply: till Nature's self,
(The native passions of the human mind)
Engender war; which thins, and segregates,
And rectifies the balance of the world;

As thick-sown plants in the vegetable world,
 With stretching branches wage continual war ;
 Each tender bud shrinks from the foreign touch
 With a degree of sensitive perception ;
 Till one deforms, o'er-tops, and kills the other.' P: 4.

Mr. Lofft has expressed his doubts of the truth of this principle. As a Christian, he should more decidedly have controverted an opinion so mischievous and so absurd: it is the corner-stone of atheism, and of atheistic morals; for it denies the existence of an over-ruling Intelligence; and asserts, that man must, like the beasts, blindly indulge his sexual appetite, however deplorable and ruinous the consequences. Such an assertion may be credited by the inhabitants and by the visitants of the brothel: but they must be lamentably ignorant of history and of metaphysics, who are the dupes of such a system. Mr. N. Bloomfield has hastily assented to a doctrine which he has but half examined. If the evils of society be amended, say these arithmetical moralists—if the condition of the poor be bettered—the world will one day be overstocked: want, therefore, and disease, and war, are not evils, but preventatives. What should we say to the quack who should wish to inoculate us with the king's-evil, lest our children should be so healthy as to be in danger of apoplexy?

The poems, in general, are not without merit: this last, however, is inferior to every other piece in the volume. The versification is, nevertheless, smooth, and, when the circumstances of the author are considered, surprisingly free from faults: but it is sometimes languid: and the subject itself is so offensive to the feelings and wishes of those to whom poetry is chiefly addressed, that we believe it will give little pleasure. The Elegy on the Enclosure of Honington Green is, in every respect, superior.

'Here' (says Mr. Lofft) 'it may be right to obviate some prejudice against the poem, which, in the minds of several, may arise from the subject. I am not an enemy to enclosures: if the rights and interests of the poor, and of small owners, be very carefully guarded, an enclosure may be a common benefit. However, it is very liable to become otherwise. But be an enclosure good or bad, (and every man has a right to his opinion, and to support it by argument, on this subject and every other) there are particular circumstances and considerations which stand clear of the scope of the general question. The spot which is the subject of the ballad is less, I believe, than half an acre. It did certainly ornament the village; independent of a just and laudable partiality in the author. Thus it would have seem'd to the casual glance of a stranger. To the Bloomfields every circumstance gave it peculiar endearment. There the author of 'The Farmer's Boy,' and of these poems, first drew breath. There grew the first daisies which

their feet press'd in childhood. On this little green their parents look'd with delight : and the children caught the affection ; and learn'd to love it as soon as they lov'd any thing. By it's smallness and it's situation it was no object : and could have been left out of enclosure without detriment to the general plan, or to any individual interest. I wish it had : and most who love poetry, and respect genius, and are anxious to preserve the little innocent gratifications of the poor, will have the same wish.

' As a poetical effusion, it strikes me that it has the tone, simplicity, and sweetness, and pleasing melancholy of the ballad. There is a stroke or two of indignant severity : but the general character is such as I have describ'd. And with filial gratitude and love there is blended, in the close, that turn for reflection which is so remarkable in this author . . . I wish'd and recommended that some at least of the ornaments of ' The Farmer's Boy ' should be sketches of local scenery : knowing how much more interesting they would have been, and how much more appropriate to the poem. In that recommendation I was not successful : but I am glad, in this instance, to see a faithful and agreeable sketch of Honington-Green from a very young pencil. It will be remember'd, at a far remote period, that the double cottage at the end of the green was the birth-place of the Bloomfields. It is still, (and may it yet be long so) the habitation of their mother : and has been repair'd lately by Robert. And I much doubt whether any house or green will see two such poets born of the same parents.' P. xviii.

We extract the stanzas in which the poet speaks of his father and of his own childhood.

- ' I faintly remember the man,
Who died when I was but a child ;
But far as my young mind could scan,
His manners were gentle and mild :
He won infant ears with his lore,
Nor let young ideas run wild,
Tho' his hand the severe rod of pow'r
Never sway'd o'er a trembling child.
- ' Not anxiously careful for self,
Melancholic and thoughtful, his mind
Look'd inward, and dwelt on itself,
Still pensive, pathetic, and kind ;
Yet oft in despondency drown'd,
He from friends, and from converse would fly,
In weeping a luxury found,
And reliev'd others' woes with a sigh.
- ' In solitude long would he stay,
And long lock'd in silence his tongue ;
Then he humm'd an elegiac lay,
Or a psalm penitential he sung :
But if with his friends he regal'd,
His mirth, as his griefs, knew no bounds ;
In no tale of Mark Sargent he fail'd,
Nor in all Robin Hood's Derry-downs.

- ' Through the poor widow's long lonely years,
 Her father supported us all:
 Yet sure she was loaded with cares,
 Being left with six children so small.
 Meagre want never lifted her latch;
 Her cottage was still tight and clean;
 And the casement beneath it's low thatch,
 Commanded a view o'er the Green.
- ' O'er the Green, where so often she blast
 The return of a husband or son,
 Coming happily home to their rest,
 At night, when their labour was done:
 Where so oft in her earlier years,
 She, with transport maternal, has seen
 (While plying her housewifely cares)
 Her children all safe on the Green.
- ' The Green was our pride through the year, -
 For in spring, when the wild flow'rets blew,
 Tho' many rich pastures were near,
 Where cowslips and daffodils grew;
 And tho' such gallant flow'rs were our choice,
 It was bliss interrupted by fear—
 The fear of their owner's dread voice,
 Harshly bawling "You've no business here."
- ' While the Green, tho' but daisies it's boast,
 Was free as the flow'rs to the bee;
 In all seasons the Green we lov'd most,
 Because on the Green we were free;
 'Twas the prospect that first met my eyes,
 And memory still blesses the scene;
 For early my heart learnt to prize
 The freedom of Honington Green.' p. 33.

The conclusion of this poem has uncommon merit.

- ' Tho' the youth of to-day must deplore
 The rough mounds that now sadden the scene,
 The vain stretch of Misanthropy's power,
 The enclosure of Honington Green.
 Yet when not a green turf is left free,
 When not one odd nook is left wild,
 Will the children of Honington be
 Less blest than when I was a child?
- ' No!—childhood shall find the scene fair,
 Then here let me cease my complaint;
 Still shall health be inhal'd with the air,
 Which at Honington cannot be tainted;
 And tho' Age may still talk of the Green,
 Of the heath, and free commons of yore,
 Youth shall joy in the new-fangled scene,
 And boast of *that* change we deplore.

- ‘ Dear to me was the wild thorny hill,
And dear the brown heath’s sober scene ;
And Youth shall find happiness still,
Tho’ he roves not on common or green :
Tho’ the pressure of Wealth’s lordly hand
Shall give Emulation no scope,
And tho’ all th’ appropriate land
Shall leave Indigence nothing to hope.
- ‘ So happily flexile man’s make,
So pliantly docile his mind,
Surrounding impressions we take,
And bliss in each circumstance find.
The youths of a more polish’d age
Shall not wish these rude commons to see ;
To the bird that’s inur’d to the cage,
It would not be bliss to be free.’ p. 98.

There is an inaccuracy in using *taint* for *tainted*; and sometimes, unless the pronunciation be forced, the metre is defective. Such faults occur seldom; the writer more frequently expresses himself with a fortunate ease, which surprises as well as pleases.

The ‘Culprit’ is what Mr. Lofft, adopting Mr. Dyer’s language, calls a *representative* poem: it is a soliloquy in character—the feelings of a prisoner during his trial. The execution of this is far better than the design. Of the smaller poems, the last is the most striking—‘An Address to Dr. Jenner.’ Our readers will not peruse it without emotion, when they learn that the author had just lost a third child by the small-pox.

- ‘ Shall parental love neglect
To minister the precious balm?
- ‘ Oh! no; beware of dire delay,
Ye, who caress your infants dear;
Defer it not from day to day,
From month to month, from year to year;
- ‘ Lest you, like me, too late lament,
Your life bereft of all it’s joy;
Clasp now the gift so kindly sent,
Lest you behold your dying boy!
- ‘ Lest you see with trembling fear,
With inexpressible distress;
The purple spots of death appear,
To blast your hopes and happiness;
- ‘ Lest your keenest grief to wake,
Like mine your suffering prattler say,
“ Go, bid my father come and take
These frightful spots and sores away.”

' Quickly from such fears be free :

Oh ! there is danger in delay !

Say not to-morrow it shall be :—

To-morrow ! no ; to-day, to-day.

' Embrace the blessing Heaven hath sent ;

So shall you ne'er such pangs endure :

Oh ! give a trifle to prevent,

What you would give a world to cure.' P. 94.

The specimens which we have selected will justify us in bestowing our praise upon this little volume ; and sincerely do we wish that public praise may be as efficient in his instance, as it was in that of his brother. We hope Mr. N. Bloomfield will continue to write: but we would dissuade him from writing in blank verse; it requires a command of language, and a strength of thought, which he has not yet attained.

We cannot better conclude this article, than in the words of the benevolent editor.

' Mr. Nathaniel Bloomfield was not without his fears, however, lest it should be thought, that, although the Muse can visit a shepherd's boy, there may be some employments which exclude her influence. That a taylor should be a poet, he doubted, might appear too startling an assertion. And he had said accordingly to his brother George, in a letter, when this publication was first going to press, "I want you to exclude the word *taylor*. Let there be no such word in the book. But perhaps I am too late. I know there is in the public mind as great contempt for him who bears the appellation of *taylor*, as Sterne has made old Shandy have for Simkin, Neckey, or Tristram. How many Cæsars and Pompeys, says he, by mere inspiration of the names, have been rendered worthy of them? And how many are there who might have done exceedingly well in the world, had not their characters and spirits been totally depressed and Nicodemiz'd; and I will add (says Mr. N. Bloomfield) *taylor'd* into nothing? In the Rehearsal, the author, to make the most ridiculous part of it still more ridiculous, tells us, that it was written to a *taylor*, and by a *taylor's wife*. And even the discerning Spectator has given into this common-place railery in the Monkey's Letter to her Mistress. He has made the soul which inhabited pug's body, in recounting the humiliating state it had formerly been in, say that he had been a *taylor*, a shrimp, and a tomtit. It is from these causes, as well as from the habits and appearance contracted by a recluse and sedentary life, that, in the enlighten'd, as well as the ignorant, the ideas of *taylor* and *insignificance* are inseparably link'd together."

' I prevail'd, notwithstanding, that this word, whose anti-poetic influence is so dreaded, should be in the book. About half a century ago, there seem'd a degree of incredulity as to the possibility of courage in a taylor. Elliot's light horse, at that time compos'd of taylor-volunteers, effectually overcame that prejudice. It remain'd to dissolve another still more irrational prepossession, that a taylor cannot be a

poet. And this volume will be a victorious host against an army of such prejudices. Indeed the force is greater than such a combat requires: for stubborn as other prejudices may still be, our literary prejudices have, in this age, been rapidly giving way to candour, reason, common-sense, and the evidence of fact. We have long known that a Scotch plough-boy (Burns) and a milk-woman (Mrs. Yearsley) could still be poets of high and almost singular excellence. And if improbability were any thing against fact, it would be far more improbable, that two brothers should be such poets as Robert and Nathaniel Bloomfield are, than that a taylor should be a poet. It remains then for prejudice to vanish like mists before the sun; while the two brothers sociably ascend Parnassus together, higher than ever brothers have climbed before: I might add, each of them to an height which but few have ever reach'd.

ART. VII. — *Female Biography; or, Memoirs of illustrious and celebrated Women, of all Ages and Countries. Alphabetically arranged. By Mary Hays. 6 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Phillips. 1803.*

MANY are the disputes which have been agitated concerning the comparative superiority or inferiority of the two sexes; in the course of which, the disputants have generally appeared to us too warm and too eager in their partialities, to admit a suitable compromise, or appeal, from theory and romance, to experience and the evidence of facts. In the present state of the controversy, it is probable that the work before us has been compiled to counteract the contempt in which some yet hold the female mind; and in this intention it cannot fail to produce a powerful diversion in favour of the latter. Here, indeed, are ample materials, by which contending opinions may be repelled or confirmed. Those who exalt the capacity of the fair sex must expect to be asked for proofs; and what more striking than a body of evidence, which comprehends the characters and actions of the most illustrious women of all nations? For producing such a testimony, Miss Hays will probably receive the thanks of her sex; and, although we shall have occasion to produce some objections of considerable weight, we cannot, upon the whole, deny her the praise of much laudable zeal and industry. If she disappoint any expectations, she may console herself by the reflexion, that expectations on such a subject will be guided by prejudices and opinions, of which she could have no knowledge, and against which she could make no preparation.

These volumes contain the lives of above two hundred and eighty females, who have been celebrated for virtue,

wisdom, or fortitude, by authors of various nations, and writing from various motives. The authorities are chiefly Ballard, Bayle, and Gibbons; the *Dictionnaire Historique, Biographium Fœminœum*, and some individual historians. The whole is compiled in a neat and uniform style, and, with some few exceptions, 'every character has been judged upon its own principles; the reflexions, sparingly interwoven, have been such as naturally arose out of the subject; nor has the author ever gone out of her way in favour of sects and systems.'

In her preface, Miss Hays has endeavoured to obviate the objection, that 'but little new is brought forward in this work.' But this was surely unnecessary. Much novelty could not be expected in a compilation which boasts no other resources than are in every common library. For all the purposes of her compilation, it appeared sufficient to take the accounts reputed most authentic, to change the style for the sake of uniformity, and abridge the histories where they appeared too prolix. Of what, therefore, she found in books, she seems to have made a judicious use; and it was assuredly unnecessary for her to repeat the researches of a Ballard or a Walpole, who had already collected the only materials which research could have procured.

We shall, however, now advert to a plea, in which, we are of opinion, she has not been so successful. It occurs in preface, p. vi.

'For the life of Catherine II. some apology, on account of its disproportionate length, is probably due. The interesting nature of the subjects it embraced, and the copiousness of the materials, insensibly led me beyond the purposed limits. The lives of our own Elizabeth, of whom Englishwomen may justly boast, and of the unfortunate Mary of Scotland, her rival and sister queen, are also of considerable length. But let it be remembered, that the reign of an absolute monarch is strictly biographical, and that the character of the sovereign is read in the history of his times. The life of madame de Maintenon, so full of amusing anecdote, secures me the indulgence of my readers. In that of madame Roland, the progress and delineation of a most extraordinary and admirable mind, placed in circumstances wholly unparalleled, abounds in so much instruction, and excites so lively an interest, that further to have abridged it would have been almost a crime.'

To this argument we cannot agree. Elizabeth and Catharine, although absolute monarchs in the common meaning of the word, had their counsellors and advisers; and many of their actions were performed in concert with other sovereigns. We know not, and never can know, to whom the real merit of many actions is to be attributed, which are nominally the actions of an absolute prince. But Miss Hays's

opinion has led her to give a biography of these monarchs, and of Mary queen of Scots, wholly disproportioned to the rest of the work. The life of Catharine extends to 428 pages, that of Elizabeth to 220 (did she deserve this *reduction* of allowance?), and that of Mary to 286. It must, we candidly think, immediately strike the reader, that these lives are thus extended, merely because extensive materials were at command, and scarcely required more than transcription; while, on the other hand, it is equally obvious, that they increase the bulk and price of the work, without contributing in the same proportion to its moral purposes. If the fair sex be to be taught by examples, it is useless to point their attention to those exalted stations, which, in the present state of society, can never be attained by merit. In Catharine II. as a *woman*, we see nothing but what is grossly repugnant to the delicacy of the sex; and, as a sovereign, we are perhaps too near the period of her reign to be able to separate the true from the false. While we dwell upon this subject, indeed, we may further object, that her being entered upon the muster-roll at all is not consistent with Miss Hays's plan, if the following words in the preface have any meaning:—she professes to have *admitted* but few 'who have come nearer to our own times, for reasons *unnecessary* to be detailed.' But why *unnecessary*? why are we to have no explanation of a rule arbitrarily laid down, and as arbitrarily broken? Catharine is not the only woman of recent date who is honoured with a place in these Memoirs:—we have madame Roland, and Mrs. Chapone, but not a word of Mrs. (Wollstonecraft) Godwin, who, according to the obvious intention of the author, ought to have been admitted as the champion of her sex, and the reviver of the sexual controversy.

With respect to madame Roland's life, we have the same objection as to that of Catharine: it occupies more than 200 pages, and is principally a transcript from her own Memoirs; and we are very doubtful whether the life of such a woman, in which the romantic spirit and egregious vanity of the original are preserved, can contribute much to the honour or edification of her sex. We have yet a more serious objection to the retention of an abominable word in this memoir, with which we are surprised that any lady should ever have contaminated her pages. Madame de Maintenon is also allowed a far greater proportion than the life of an artful courtesan, whatever her talents, deserves in a work intended to dignify the female character, and instruct the female mind. As to the life of Ninon de l'Enclos, we shall only say that we hope there are not many ladies who can read it without a blush, and some degree of indignation at being entrapped into

the biography of a prostitute, whose passions even the extremity of old age could never repress.

We are sorry that we have been led to offer so many objections to what constitutes a large proportion of this work ; but we trust it will be found, upon reflexion, that our objections are serious and important. To minuter imperfections, we shall not descend * ; but shall at once present our readers with a fair specimen of the general execution of the work, in an extract from the life of Mrs. Macaulay Graham, the materials of which are original, and, our readers will perceive, worked up *con amore*.

After a short account of her family, Miss Hays thus details the early studies and rising genius of Mrs. Graham.

' The younger' (sister), ' Catherine, found nothing to interest her attention in her sister's pursuits ; active and curious, she thirsted for knowledge, and her dolls could give her no information. The books which were put into her hands entertained her for a time, while they interested her imagination, and gratified her taste for novelty ; but at length she became satiated with fairy tales and romances, which afforded not aliment sufficiently substantial to satisfy the cravings of her enquiring mind. Having found her way into her father's well-furnished library, she became her own purveyor, and rioted in intellectual luxury. Every hour in the day, which no longer hung heavy upon her hands, was now occupied and improved. She first made choice of the periodical writers, the Spectators, Guardian, &c. who, in treating of morals and manners, led her to reflection, while they opened and strengthened her mind. As she advanced in age, her studies took a wider range ; she grew attached to history, and dwelt with delight and ardour on the annals of the Greek and Roman republics. Their laws and manners interested her understanding, the spirit of patriotism seized her, and she became an enthusiast in the cause of freedom. The heroic characters and actions with which this period of history is intermingled and enlivened, seldom fail to captivate the affections of a youthful and uncorrupted heart. All other books were thrown aside ; history became her darling passion, and liberty the idol of her imagination. Rollin's Ancient History, and his Account of the Roman Republic, first lighted up that spark in her mind, which afterwards blazed with so much fervour and splendour, and which gave the tone to her sentiments and character through the subsequent periods of her life. To a spirit thus excited, retirement, by concentrating its force, added strength : the world, with its lax principles and vicious habits, had not yet broken in upon the gay mistakes of the just expanding heart, enamoured of truth and virtue, and ignorant of the difficulties which retard and obstruct their progress.—

' Oh youth ! the lovely source of generous errors !

* A singular instance occurs in the life of Mrs. Centlivre. It is said ' *Eustace and Budgell* were of the number of her acquaintance.' Surely no person conversant in literary history would wish to increase Mrs. Centlivre's acquaintance, by dividing Eustace Budgell into two persons.

From early habits of seclusion, it became the choice of Catherine: ordinary amusements and occupations were tasteless to a spirit wrought to higher views and purposes; great delicacy, talents, and sensibility, united in the female mind, rarely fail to inspire a distaste for common intercourse. From the world of frivolity, flattery, and dissipation, she shrunk back to a more improving world of her own. In the course of her historical studies, the pictures of vice and turpitude which occasionally presented themselves, while they roused her indignation, excited the astonishment of her inexperienced heart; the feelings of which were called forth, exercised, and exalted. The history of the despotism and tyranny of a few individuals, and the slavish subjection of uncounted millions, their passive acquiescence, their sufferings, and their wrongs, appeared to her a moral problem, which she had no instruments to solve. She had yet to learn the force of prescription, of habit, and of association, the imitative and progressive nature of the human mind, and the complicated springs by which it is set in motion. She deeply reflected on the subject of government, with its influence on the happiness and virtue of mankind: she became anxious that the distance should be diminished that separates man from man; and to see extended over the whole human race those enlightened sentiments, equal laws, and equitable decisions, that might restore to its due proportion a balance so ill adjusted, and combine with the refinement of a more advanced age the simplicity and virtue of the earlier periods. Fraught with these ideas, and with a heart glowing with good-will towards her species, she took up her pen, and gave to the most interesting portion of the history of her country a new spirit and interest.

A female historian, by its singularity, could not fail to excite attention: she seemed to have stepped out of the province of her sex: curiosity was sharpened, and malevolence provoked. The author was attacked by petty and personal scurrilities, to which it was believed her sex would render her vulnerable. Her talents and powers could not be denied; her beauty was therefore called in question, as if it was at all concerned with the subject; or that, to instruct our understandings, it was necessary at the same time to charm our senses. "She is deformed (said her adversaries, wholly unacquainted with her person), she is unfortunately ugly, she despairs of distinction and admiration as a woman, she seeks, therefore, to encroach on the province of man." "These were the notions," said a lady (Mrs. Arnold) afterwards intimately connected with the historian, "that I was led to entertain of Mrs. Macaulay, previous to my introduction to her acquaintance. Judge then of my surprise, when I saw a woman elegant in her manners, delicate in her person, and with features, if not perfectly beautiful, so fascinating in their expression, as deservedly to rank her face among the higher order of human countenances. Her height was above the middle size, inclining to tall; her shape slender and elegant; the contour of her face, neck, and shoulders, graceful. The form of her face was oval, her complexion delicate, and her skin fine; her hair was of a mild brown, long, and profuse; her nose between the Roman and the Grecian; her mouth small, her chin round, as was the lower part of her face, which made it appear to more advantage in front than in profile. Her eyes were beautiful as imagination can conceive, full of penetration and fire, but their fire softened by the mild-

est beams of benevolence; their colour was a fine dark hazel, and their expression the indication of a superior soul. Infirm health, too often the attendant on an active and highly cultivated understanding, gave to her countenance an extreme delicacy, which was peculiarly interesting. To this delicacy of constitution was added a most amiable sensibility of temper, which rendered her feelingly alive to whatever concerned those with whom she was connected either by nature or by friendship."

' In her friendships, we are told by this lady, Mrs. Macaulay was fervent, disinterested, and sincere; zealous for the prosperity, and for the moral improvement, of those whom she distinguished and loved. She was earnest, constant, and eloquent, in her efforts for rectifying the principles, and enlarging the minds, of her friends and connections. It was her favourite maxim, that universal benevolence, and a liberal way of thinking, were not only essential to the freedom and welfare of society, but to individual virtue, enjoyment, and happiness. There was no arrogance in her exhortations and counsels; her accents were not less mild and persuasive, than her reasoning was energetic and forcible. "In the course," says her friend, from whose communications the present account is extracted, "of my acquaintance with this most intelligent and amiable woman, I had an opportunity of studying every part of her character."

' Towards the latter end of the year 1777, she was ordered by her physicians to the south of France, for the benefit of her health; in which journey Mrs. Arnold accompanied her. A low nervous fever, to which she was subject, had debilitated her frame, without deducting either from the force or activity of her mind. Nothing, during this excursion, escaped her observation; her conversations and remarks were at once acute and profound.

' After crossing the sea, on which she was severely exhausted by sickness, she rested two days at Calais, where she soon experienced, from the change of air, and possibly from the sea sickness itself, a salutary effect. Her fever seemed to have left her, and she suffered in the remainder of her journey to Paris but little inconvenience. She was greatly struck with the different appearance of the inhabitants of the two countries, as also with the face of the country itself. Between Calais and Paris, she looked in vain for the healthy and well-fed peasant, the beautiful and luxuriant meadows, the cultivated farms, and comfortable farm-houses, of her native island. Despotism had palsied the hand of industry: an indigent and miserable people appeared thinly scattered over wild and dreary plains. The reflections which she made on this occasion, raised in her opinion the country which she had quitted; where, in comparative freedom, commerce and the arts grew and flourished. She praised, and quoted, the sentiments and remarks of Dr. Smollet on the same subject. The travellers stopped one day at Chantilly, where they met with two of their friends, and where they had an opportunity of observing a royal residence, and contrasting it with the wretchedness which they had so recently witnessed. Mrs. Macaulay was not in a state of health to bear the fatigue of inspecting the palace. To Dr. Nash, one of the gentlemen whom she met at Chantilly, and who would, with apparent satisfaction, have described to her the curiosities and magnificence of the prince's resi-

dence, she replied (after thanking him courteously for the trouble he was about to give himself), that she would spare him the repetition, since she could receive no pleasure in hearing of the splendour of one mortal, while the misery of thousands pressed upon her recollection.

As they proceeded towards the capital, the face of the country, and the looks of its inhabitants, gradually improved; but, at the first post-house at which they stopped to change horses, the feelings of the travellers were again excited by the objects which, crowding around their carriage, clamorously implored their charitable donations, while they exhibited in their persons and squalid appearance every variety of want and of human wretchedness. "My God! my God!" exclaimed Mrs. Macaulay, with a benevolent enthusiasm, bursting into tears, "have mercy on the works of thine own hand!" She made her servant distribute to them each three livres, and divided among them the provisions she had in the carriage. For some miles after this incident she preserved a profound silence; at length, taking the hand of her fellow-traveller in hers—"You, my dear friend," said she, "saw yesterday the habitation of the prince of Condé, and his family at dinner!"—She paused, unable to proceed, but by a look that conveyed her meaning more eloquently than words.

The apartments provided for the travellers, near the Luxembourg palace, on their arrival at Paris, were commodious and elegant. Mrs. Macaulay found her health so much amended by the journey, that, in a few days, she collected around her, by her letters of introduction, an agreeable society. Persons of the first rank and eminence were gratified with the opportunity of paying their respects to an Englishwoman, whose talents entitled her to distinction. Among the number of her visitors were the family of the count de Sarsfield; the dukes of Harcourt and Liancourt; the chevalier de Rigemont: the abbé Colbert, a descendant of the great financier of that name; madame Boccage, madame Grigson, &c. with lord Stormont, the English ambassador. Dr. Franklin was at that time in Paris; Mrs. Macaulay met him several times, among the literati of Paris, at dinners given on her account, but she never received him at her hotel. During a day which she passed at monsieur Turgot's, with a large party, she was introduced to the celebrated Marmontel, and to the widow of the philosopher Helvetius, a woman of an extraordinary character. In these societies, so congenial to her disposition, she experienced a high gratification, and appeared with peculiar spirit and advantage. The pleasure which she inspired was equally lively with that which she received: the universal information which her conversation displayed, appeared to her auditors not less admirable than her historical acquisitions, and the powers of her mind. Her brilliant talents for conversation, with the variety of her knowledge, and the vivacity of her imagination, rendered her a most interesting and instructive companion.

With a mind too enlightened for bigotry, and an enemy to mere forms of devotion, often absurd, and always spiritless, the freedom with which she delivered her sentiments on these subjects, drew upon her the imputation of scepticism and infidelity. These assertions are declared, by her friend, to have been ill founded, as proved by some passages in her treatise on the "Immutability of truth." "She confirmed the reality of her prepossession," says the lady already quoted, "in

favour of the Christian revelation, by the most diligent cultivation of benevolence towards mankind, and the most exact moral rectitude in every action of her life." "She had those hopes, and that confident expectation of her own future happiness, which Christian faith and conscious rectitude only can inspire." In testimony of this opinion, Mrs. Arnold refers to a conversation which passed between herself and Mrs. Macaulay, when her health was in a languishing state, at Abbeville, in their way to Paris. After reproving her friend's too great sensibility and solicitude on her account, "I thought and hoped," said she, "that you viewed my death but as a short separation between virtuous friends, and that your assurance of a re-union with me, in a more perfect state, would have preserved you from being thus severely affected by the idea of my dissolution." She went on to console her companion and fellow-traveller in the same strain—"Consider our parting," said she, "but as a short privation; for, be assured, the friendship of the good will not be dissolved by death: we shall again unite in another life." The feeble state of her frame, and consequent sufferings, she said, naturally led her to these reflections. She considered the present state of being but as the dawning of existence, nor did she shrink from its termination as a subject of terror, but was rather prepared to meet her change with confidence and satisfaction. Her researches, she observed, into the nature of God and of man, and the relations subsisting between them, would have been vain, had it not brought her to this conclusion; vain also would have been her convictions of the truth of the Christian revelation, and the recompence which its author promises to his disciples. She trusted, she declared, in that Being, who had not given her capacities of enjoyment for no adequate end, that he would preserve and support her through the various stages of an everlasting existence. She lamented the prevalence of sense, and the pursuits by which the mind, capable of sublimer flights, was bound down to earth and inferior gratifications. She called upon her friend to observe and to witness, that, in her present enfeebled situation, her prospects grew brighter with her progress towards the grave: she anticipated the period when her spirit, disencumbered of its tenement, should no longer be impeded in its aspirations and researches, and when, in the presence of the Supreme Intelligence, it should find the sources of knowledge, of science, and of beauty, laid open to its view, while its capacities and powers should expand without bounds. In this exalted and visionary strain she continued, at intervals, through the day to expatiate; while she seemed to derive peculiar pleasure from the idea of the future re-union of the virtuous: a cheering and delightful notion to susceptible and tender minds!

Her visit to Paris was critically timed, at the period when Great Britain, at war with her colonies, beheld the French government with a jealous eye. The *habeas corpus* act was also at that time suspended in England. In these circumstances, Mrs. Macaulay was peculiarly cautious to give no offence to the administration of her country, by entering with too much fervor into the cause of the Americans; or by appearing to have any other views in her excursion to France (by which the colonies were assisted and favoured), than for the benefit and restoration of her health. During the six weeks that she remained in

Paris, her apartments were crowded with visitors, and her invitations to dinner daily multiplied. Among the Americans who were at that time numerous in Paris, those who were eminent for their learning or talents seized every opportunity of observing the fair historian, and mingling in the societies she was accustomed to frequent. Apprehensive, from these circumstances, lest her conduct should be misconstrued, and finding her health much amended since she had quitted England, she determined to give up the idea of proceeding southward, and the rather as the season of the year was unfavourable to travelling, and to the accommodations indispensable to an invalid. The end of her journey was in part accomplished, and business rendered her presence necessary at home. These motives combined to influence her to bid adieu to the hospitable societies at Paris, and to return once more to her native land. In a letter to Dr. Franklin, before her departure, she informed him of the motives by which she had been induced to wave the satisfaction of seeing him and his American friends at her hotel. The circumstances of the times, and of her known republican principles, rendered her liable to suspicions; and the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act in England to consequences, which, in the delicate state of her health, could not but prove fatal.—“The whole tenor of my conduct must have convinced you, sir,” says she, towards the conclusion of her letter, “that I should with pleasure sacrifice my life, could it be of any real service to the cause of public freedom. I am now nursing my constitution, to enable me to treat at large, in the history in which I am at present engaged, on our fatal civil war. I am, sir, with profound respect for your great qualities, as a statesman, patriot, and philosopher, yours, &c. &c.”

Having been personally acquainted with the greater number of the celebrated Americans who had visited England, and in the habit of corresponding with those who had distinguished themselves on the other side of the Atlantic, Mrs. Macaulay was very desirous of making a visit to the transatlantic republic; a design which she executed in 1785. She visited nine of the thirteen united states, by whom she was received with kindness and hospitality. She terminated her journey to the south by paying her respects to general Washington, at his seat at Mount Vernon in Virginia. Under the roof of this illustrious man she remained three weeks; and continued to correspond with him during the remainder of her life.

It seemed to have been her intention, after her return to England, to have composed a history of the American contest; for which purpose she had been furnished by general Washington with many materials. It is to be regretted that, thus qualified, she was, by the infirm state of her health for some years prior to her death, prevented from the execution of her plan. She resided during the greater part of the remainder of her life at Binfield in Berkshire; where, after a tedious illness, attended by much suffering, which she supported with exemplary patience and fortitude, she expired, June 22, 1791. She was interred in the chancel of Binfield church, under an elegant marble monument executed by Mr. Bacon.

She was twice married: the first time to Dr. George Macaulay, a physician of some eminence in London; and, after his death, to Mr. William Graham, who had also been educated to the profession

of physic, but who afterwards entered into the church. A daughter was the fruit of her first marriage; who gave her hand to captain Gregory, many years a commander in the East-India service, in which he acquired an ample fortune: his wife has since become a widow, with four children. Vol. v. p. 289.

In this account, the reader will observe that panegyric has, in a great measure, supplanted biographical fidelity. The peculiar circumstances of Mrs. Macaulay's marriages are sunk, by omitting the dates; and even the age of the lady is not mentioned, nor any notice taken of the success of her history, which proved to the booksellers a most unfortunate speculation.

From the remarks already made, our opinion of this work may be collected: it is certainly more ample than any preceding work of the kind, and sufficiently copious in entertainment. Curiosity, at least, will be gratified; but the higher purposes of biography have not, in all instances, been studied, nor have the distinctions between greatness and goodness been always preserved. The search has been for heroines—a species of beings, who, with us, stand in no higher favour than heroes, seldom the benefactors, and frequently the disturbers, of the peace of mankind.

ART. VIII.—*Critical Remarks on many important Passages of Scripture: together with Dissertations upon several Subjects, tending to illustrate the Phraseology and Doctrine of the New Testament. By the late Reverend Newcome Cappe. To which are prefixed, Memoirs of his Life, by the Editor, Catharine Cappe. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

HOW different soever may be the opinions entertained on these remarks, and how repugnant soever several of them may be to our own, we will not refuse to this amiable writer the praise and merit of having applied his utmost diligence to acquire a thorough knowledge of those writings to which his life had been dedicated. Naturally cool and dispassionate, he seems, from the account of him prefixed by his biographer, to have been placed in a sphere well calculated for his genius; in which he could cultivate the society of a few friends, by whom he was tenderly beloved; pursue, without fatigue, the more active duties of his profession; and still command time for the prosecution of his favourite studies. The education he received was that of the higher class of dissenters. He was first placed under the excellent tuition of Dr. Doddridge, and then sent to Glasgow; whence, after the completion of his college exercises, he was elected joint mini-

ster of the dissenting chapel at St. Saviour's gate; the duties of which, at the expiration of a year, devolved solely upon himself; and in this situation he remained till the day of his death. No events of importance, except to his family, can be expected to have occurred in a life thus noiseless and regular. It is principally divided by the duties of his more prominent and generally esteemed sermons; which, like his portrait introduced as a frontispiece to this publication, exhibited, in the main, an aspect, mild, uniform, and unruffled.

The chief subjects treated upon, in these two volumes, are the preface to St. John's Gospel—the terms, *kingdom of heaven, God, and Christ*—Christ in the form of God—regeneration—the Lord's prayer—the temptation—baptism—the mission of John the Baptist—Judaism—the future life of man—the name of Christ—and Christian principles.

Very little variation from the common version is introduced into the preface to St. John's Gospel. 'In the beginning,' is rendered 'from the first;' and, instead of 'all things were made by him,' it is said 'all things were by him; and, without him, was not any that has been.' By interpreting the two commencing words, 'from the first,' our readers naturally anticipate the opinion of the writer, that St. John speaks only of the events of his own times: *the word* is considered to be our Saviour; and his having been *with God* is interpreted, by his having, in such manner, been with him, 'as to be instructed and qualified' by him; and by his having been more particularly with God before he entered on his ministry, and during the forty days and forty nights which he spent in the wilderness. The passage rendered in the common version, 'the word was God,' is here translated 'God was the word;' and it is compared with various passages, in which our Saviour declares his union with the father, and is supposed to be a mere inference from the preceding words. The second verse, in which we expected a fuller explanation, is left with this comment—

'The manner in which a part of the 1st verse is here resumed *again*, seems to favour the idea that there is nothing very weighty in the first clause of that verse, and that it is not to be considered singly, but according to a mode of writing very common with the Hebrews, combined into one proposition with the second clause. "In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth, and the earth was without form," &c.' Vol. i. p. 38.

All things are those things only which relate to the Gospel: *the world* is not the universe; but the Jewish world, which—

'—was not formed by Christ, by any personal power or influence
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of his, which could not be before he was in being; yet, if by him who formed the Jewish world, it was formed with any reference or respect to Christ, for any use or service to him, or any interest of his when he should appear, it was not *χρὲς αὐτοῦ*, but *δι' αὐτοῦ*. The scriptures of the New Testament every where represent the Jewish dispensation, not as a detached and independent thing, complete in itself and instituted for its own sake; but as being good in its season, and preparatory to the Christian. The promise to Abraham was fulfilled through Christ: the law contained in it, figures, patterns, shadows of good things to come; the body is of Christ.' Vol. i. p. 60.

'The glory, as of the only begotten of the Father,' is rendered—'we beheld his glory, as of the only begotten with the Father:' and this glory with the Father is supposed to be the gift of the Holy Spirit, communicated after the ascension. *Πρωτος* is translated *principal*; and the superiority of Christ over John is stated to consist 'in his designation to bestow the Holy Spirit on his disciples.' The phrase—'who is in the bosom of the Father'—refers to the situation of Christ, at that time no longer in the world, but in the heavens, and 'admitted to such communications with the Father, and honoured with such tokens of his favour, as had never been enjoyed by any of the sons of men.'

Having introduced these variations from the established version, the writer, in his reflexions, observes, generally, that there is no mystery in the doctrine conveyed in this disputed passage, that 'there is nothing in the doctrine of John either sublime or obscure—nothing but what is said by every other evangelist, and every apostle of our Lord, in a great variety of ways; namely, that Christ was sent to men, by God, upon an errand which he was well qualified to execute.' Such an explanation tends also, he thinks, to throw light upon several other passages of supposed equal difficulty; and he instances a vast variety of similar expressions, all of which bear to the same point; and, notwithstanding the higher import we are accustomed to give to them, all merely imply a more peculiar communication between God and Christ, and are not incompatible with the supposition, that it did not anticipate the time of our Saviour's birth.

On the kingdom of God, of heaven, and of Christ, a number of texts are examined; and our author deduces from them, that the kingdom of heaven was to commence before the generation contemporary with our Saviour had passed away, though the precise date of its commencement is not ascertained. The kingdom was said, by him, to be at hand; and, when he entered in his glory, the Holy Spirit was bestowed, and the kingdom of heaven commenced. The communication of the Holy Spirit was the proof of his rule, his regal power, and dignity; and hence a *clue* is said to be

given to discover the end of it, or the time when, according to St. Paul, he should deliver up the kingdom to his Father. Now this communication of the spirit, and the power of performing miracles, did not subsist beyond the destruction of Jerusalem; and hence the termination of the kingdom is pointed out, by that terrific act of power through which his enemies were subdued to him—the period in which his Gospel was to be left to its own energies and the usual course of God's government. By this hypothesis are interpreted all the passages which are in general supposed to refer to the end of the world and the future state of the wicked.

Agreeably to the same theory, the conversation with Nicodemus is made to refer to very different topics from those to which it is in general applied. Nicodemus wished to recommend himself to some future post in the Messiah's kingdom; and our Saviour, seeing the object of his visit, shows, in figurative language, the impossibility of his being gratified.

‘Except a man undergo a change as great as might even be denominated a new birth, as great as might be conceived to pass upon him if he could be born again, as great as takes place upon the idolater when he becomes a proselyte to Moses, he cannot share in the honours, or be employed in the ministry of my kingdom.’ Vol. i. p. 216.

The haughty Jew is confounded still more, by another expression—‘the wind bloweth where it listeth’—which is made to imply that the spirit, unrestrained and impartial as the wind; will breathe even on the lowliest of the people, and will not be confined either to the limits of Judæa, or to the house of Abraham. From this view of the subject, it should seem that it cannot refer to the case of common Christians in every age; and the supposition of modern regeneration is said to be inadmissible, from the following consideration.

¶ 1. In that case, to “see the kingdom of God,” to “enter into the kingdom of God,” does not signify here as elsewhere (see Matt. v. 19, 20, and many other passages,) to become a minister of the kingdom of Christ, to partake of the Holy Spirit for the confirmation and propagation of the Gospel, to sit with Christ at his table, or on his throne supernaturally qualified to judge, to direct, and rule the twelve tribes of Israel; but must signify to obtain the happiness of a future life, a sense which, I believe, it never bears in Scripture.

‘2. The happiness of a future life is made to depend on baptism with water. No man not baptised with water, whatever be his faith or character, not even though he had been baptised with the Holy Spirit, can be saved.

‘3. No man who is not born of the Spirit can be saved, and if to be

born of the Spirit, as is affirmed in this very passage, and is put beyond doubt, I think, by other passages of the New Testament, signifies to receive powers superior to those which are derived from the natural birth, then no man can be saved who is not partaker of the Holy Spirit, endued with power from on high, with supernatural light and the power of working miracles, though he has been baptised with water and thus pronounced pure and acceptable in the sight of God, though his faith should be without doubt or error, and his character and conduct even exemplarily holy.

‘ If to the ministry of this kingdom the Holy Spirit was necessary, then this kingdom of God, that is of heaven, of Christ, was a temporary kingdom and is now over. There are now, none endued with power from on high, therefore no such qualified ministers of this kingdom, therefore no such kingdom existing.’ Vol. i. p. 225.

In the remarks on the form of God, a concession is made, which, from the general tenor of the author's writings, we little expected. The term *robbery*, in the expression that Christ ‘thought it not robbery to be equal with God,’ has been a subject of cavil; but our author finds no difficulty in adapting it to his favourite hypothesis.

‘ By any thing that I have hitherto seen, I have not been convinced, that the original should be rendered “thought it not a thing to be seized,” or, “earnestly coveted;” this is not the natural meaning of the term, which, in the original, answers to “robbery” in the version. That term, according to some, signifies the act of rapine; but, in my apprehension, it is more agreeable to the analogy of the Greek language, to consider it as being of the very same import with another word, ἀρπαγή, which is of the same form, and differs from it only in the termination, the sense of which is, I believe uniformly, “the thing seized upon,” that which is taken by violence, what is wrongfully extorted, the subject of unjust usurpation. Be this however as it may, I do not think that it is much mistranslated in our version. “He did not think,” or “he has not thought it robbery,” either an injury, or an act of usurpation in respect of any.

“To be equal with God.”—It ought to be observed, that the term which is rendered *equal*, should not have been rendered so, for it is the doctrine of reason, and no less the doctrine of Scripture, that there is none in the heavens that can be compared with God; that he is, and that beside him there is none else. In fact, the original signifies only some sort of similarity as appears clearly from John v. 18, where the Jews are represented as enraged against Jesus, for having made himself *equal*, as our version expresses it, in saying that God was his father. In saying this, surely he did not assert that he was equal with God, but only at the utmost that, in a manner, he was like God. It is very well known that in Greek writers, a term which they often apply to men, and which, on the same principles, might be translated as the term in the text is, *equal* to God, signifies nothing more than our expression *godlike*. In the New Testament, “that,” which in Luke xx. 36. is “equal to the Angels of God,” which we have no reason to believe men are, or ever will be, in Matthew and Mark, is “as

the angels of God," and signifies nothing more than a partial similitude in a very inconsiderable particular." Vol. i. p. 232.

From the opinion entertained by our author of our Saviour's kingdom, our Lord's prayer must have been understood by himself in a sense very different from its general acceptance. If the kingdom of Christ be past, the kingdom which Christians pray for in this prayer must have a reference to something else: but if the expression were intended for the use of the apostles, it was particularly applicable to their circumstances, and to the desire they must have had for the approach of that kingdom, in which they were to bear so distinguished a part. Hence the prayer is referred entirely to the times of our Saviour; and, if the words appertained more particularly to the apostles, the inference, from the form given by our Saviour, is made with great judgement, and deserves the peculiar attention of our dissenters.

Another lesson which the consideration of this prayer, and of the prescription of it by Christ to his disciples suggests to us, is in favour of prescribed forms of prayer. Christ prescribed a form to his disciples. Do you not on every occasion put words into the mouths of children, and of weak people, to enable them to express decently, perspicuously, and properly, even their own ideas, and their own sentiments? Is it not an advantage, to some at least, to have continually by them forms of words, which having formerly been used to express just ideas, and proper sentiments, may be used by them to express them again, when these ideas and sentiments are re-awakened in their minds and hearts? May not these forms by means of their former application to the purpose, and the connexion they have got with such ideas, and such feelings, become useful even to re-awaken them in our minds? I admit, that by long and careless repetition, without exertion, or attention, that the ideas and affections belonging to them may accompany the words; forms may become a snare to those who use them, and may betray them into the guilt of mocking God, and into the folly of taking merit to themselves, for such hypocritical formality. By such means, forms of devotion may induce languor, heaviness, and inattention, at a time when our souls, and all that is within us, should be called upon to attend the worship of their Maker.

This, I believe, might every day, in every town, and in every church, be verified and exemplified, in the instance of that very prayer, which is the subject of our present consideration. However, on the general subject, "the use of forms," I will only add, that our judgement on it will not be much misled, if we do but keep it in view, that the prayer is not in the words, but in the thoughts; the prayer consists of the conceptions and feelings of the mind and heart; the form is but the clothing or vehicle of the prayer; and this is equally true, whether the terms are suggested immediately as the conceptions and affections rise, or have been framed before; in both cases, the words are a form; and the form in both cases is words. The form by itself, is words, and nothing more or less; but the thoughts, the ideas, and affections, whether with, or altogether without the form,

are prayer. Now if the form be nothing but the vehicle, or clothing of the prayer; of what importance is it, whether it be old or new; just made, or ready for our use from some very distant period? Indeed, if the prayer itself be what it ought to be, just, serious, and sincere, what imports it whether it has been conceived and felt by others before we were born, or first of all conceived and felt by us?' Vol. ii. p. 31.

In the remarks on the temptation of Christ, it will naturally be expected that the personal appearance of an evil spirit is excluded; and the words attributed to him in the narration represent only the thoughts which might arise in our Saviour's mind, and were repelled on the consideration of the important task he was on the eve of performing. The fast of forty days is reduced to a mere state of abstinence, in which he lived on what occurred to him in the country—'locusts, perhaps, or wild honey, edible vegetables, and accidental aids from the poor inhabitants, cattle-keepers, or the travelers he chanced to fall in with.' Instead of being carried by the devil to the top of the temple, our Saviour is represented only to have walked to Jerusalem, and to have gone up to the battlements of the temple, whence the thought occurred of a sudden manifestation, which was checked by the precept of Scripture—'thou shalt not tempt the Lord thy God.' The origin of an improper thought is therefore not in itself a sin.

'The clouds that shew themselves in the lake as they fly over it, whatever be their aspect, however gay and beautiful, however gloomy and forbidding, convey no qualities to the water; affect not its inherent qualities, leave no permanent effects upon it; contribute nothing to the character of them, neither improving nor depraving them. Thoughts and sentiments are not subjects of moral imputation, when they merely rise involuntarily, and immediately die; but then only, when wrong ones are voluntarily invited, encouraged, and retained; or when right ones are not retained but suppressed, or allowed to slide away.

'But though in those circumstances and affections of the mind of which we speak, there is no guilt to be bewailed and repented of; there may be, or rather must be, much discomfort, and some danger. In respect of things without us, it will be wise and happy for us, to walk circumspectly: in respect of our own thoughts, it will contribute much to the security of our virtue, to our steadiness and improvement in it, and also to our enjoyment of it, to aspire after, and keep up the powerful controul and easy government of our thoughts.' Vol. ii. p. 82.

From this view of our author's opinions, it appears that he took a very extraordinary latitude in discussing every subject under his consideration; and we might select several other topics, on which he differs, not only from the general body of Christians, but from the sect to which he peculiarly

belonged. The cool tranquillity with which every point is examined, excepting, indeed, in one or two instances, is very remarkable; and the writer pursues the even tenor of his way, totally regardless of the shocks he may give to the prejudices or right opinions of others, and leaving the reception or the rejection of his sentiments to those Scriptural proofs which he imagines to be decisive in his favour. Hence he sums up his principles in the following terms.—

‘ The Jews are styled, “ children of the kingdom, of the prophets, of Abraham, of Isaac, and of Jacob;” that is, heirs of prophecies, of the promises, of the kingdom, &c.

‘ This could not be of heavenly happiness in a future life. The Jews had no special promises concerning this. Here, no preference was intended for them.

‘ This kingdom, therefore, is the Messiah’s kingdom.

‘ The Messiah’s kingdom, was over the house of Jacob: upon the throne of David.

‘ The kingdom of the Messiah commenced at the ascension and exaltation of Jesus, and lasted till the end of the Jewish state.

‘ The kingdom of the Messiah consisted in the extraordinary and miraculous operations of Divine Providence in behalf of Jesus for the establishment of his pretensions, and to confirm the testimony of his ministers concerning him. See Rev. xi. 17 : xii. 10.

‘ The first great act of the Messiah’s kingdom, was the effusion of the Holy Spirit; the last, the inundation of Judea and Jerusalem with those calamities that overwhelmed their city, their temple, their polity, and their religion. Through the whole of its duration, it shewed itself in the operations of the Spirit, the miraculous powers by which many, if not all they who, upon the testimony of the apostles, received Jesus as the Messiah, were distinguished, and which were enjoyed by the whole body of believers, the Spirit being given to every man not for himself alone, “ but to profit,” to do good, “ withal.”

1 Cor. xii. 7.

‘ They who received Jesus as the Messiah, were his people, were saved by faith, saved by baptism, by the washing of regeneration; delivered from the wrath to come, elect, purified to him a peculiar people; justified, righteous, (*i. e.* not obnoxious to the wrath coming on the children of disobedience, who knew not God. nor obeyed the Gospel of his son,) taken out of the present evil world into the garner of Christ; saved from their sins, washed from them through the blood of Jesus, *i. e.* saved from the punishment coming on those who should be guilty of rejecting Jesus, and from the bad effects of the natural tendencies of the then general corruption of the people which Jesus called his own, (John i. 2,) and sought to make still more peculiarly his people. They are said to have no condemnation, to have life, not to perish, to have passed from death to life, to have everlasting life; to be heirs of the promises, to partake of a wedding entertainment, to assist at the celebration of an enthronement coronation, or triumphal festival, to be redeemed, (to wit, from among the tribes (nations) that were devoted to destruction,) to have been saved by baptism as in an ark, and thus transferred from an old world devoted to destruction

by Divine judgment, to a new and better world, &c. shut up in a place of safety. Immediately, on their reception of Jesus for the Messiah, they were taken out of danger, they were with the bridegroom and the heir of the kingdom, enjoying the benefits of his personal ministry, whatever they were; continuing to acknowledge him for such, upon his accession to his kingdom, they sat down in the guest-chamber, enjoying the benefits of the Messiah's kingdom: this entertainment continued to be open during the whole period from the ascension, to the end of the Jewish economy, to the invasion of the Roman army; then the door was shut; and on those without (Coloss. iv. 5; 1 Cor. v. 12.) wrath unto the uttermost was to come to their destruction.

'To enter into the kingdom, is to be a minister thereof, to have employment in the administration of its affairs; perhaps particularly, to be an apostle: it is the phrase Christ uses in speaking to those who came to him with a view to recommend themselves to the first places in the Messiah's kingdom; and what he says concerning the qualifications of such officers of his, leads to this explication of the phrase. These ministers of his, are said also, to sit and eat at his table; to sit on twelve thrones judging the twelve tribes of Israel; to sit on his right hand and left.' Vol. ii, p. 403.

'The Gospel dispensation consists of two parts: one particular, the other universal; one, respecting Judaism and the Jews; the other respecting all men equally. The one, the last days; the consummation of the Jewish economy; yet, at the same time, the introduction or commencement of the Christian: the one, the Jewish Gospel, the Gospel of the kingdom; the other, the Christian Gospel, the discovery of life; the one, the days of the Messiah; the other, life eternal: the one, a message by a prophet of the circumcision, (John) to the Jews, that the kingdom promised to their Messiah, was at hand,—that Jesus was the person; that they were required to acknowledge him for such,—that so they should be preserved in some dreadful calamities that were preparing to overwhelm those who refused him,—and in the mean time, for their deference to him should receive from God signal tokens of his acceptance, as well as of his protection in the arrival of that event; the other, the promulgation to all mankind by chosen witnesses, of a future retributory life, exhibited in the instance of Jesus raised from the dead, and brought back by the reassumption of the body that was crucified, to some intercourse with this world.' Vol. ii. p. 409.

'Whatever is essential to Christianity, all the sects of Christians, without one excepted instance, own. It is essential to Christianity, (the Gentile Christianity which consists in receiving Jesus for the life), to believe that he died and rose again, and was empowered to send from heaven the gifts of the Holy Spirit, and nothing else is essential: all the rest is *verbiage*; references to natural religions; quotations from the Old Testament; allusions to prefigurations or customs of the Mosaic economy; or, terms and phrases of the language, people, place, and time, In many respects exceedingly remote from the

language of this western world, and the accuracy of these modern times.

‘What is essential to the Jewish Christianity, (which consists in receiving Jesus for the Messiah promised to the Jews) is to receive him in that character, or to believe in him, notwithstanding the appearances that are against it, and that his kingdom is not to be such as the Jews expected, being not of this world, but to be exercised in the world whither he was going.’ Vol. ii. p. 414.

‘Christian doctrine then, is properly the revelation or promise of a future life of retribution. The discovery, by God, of a fact, that men will not die strictly, but will live, notwithstanding their death out of this world. That which is commonly called the system of Christian doctrines, and essential to the Gospel, has nothing more to do, either with it, or against it, considered as the promise of a future life, than any other speculative opinions, whether false or true, of the least related kind.

‘All the doctrines, properly so called, the truth of which is supposed or admitted, or incidentally taught in Christianity, are doctrines of natural religion, and should stand entirely upon that ground. They are all supposed to be known, or knowable, before the promulgation of Christianity. All that it reveals, is fact.’ Vol. ii. p. 421.

In the course of the work, not less than five hundred passages of Scripture are noticed, and of course explained in a manner favourable to the author’s hypothesis. The difficulties attending the general interpretation of the kingdom of Christ are well known: the agreement lately manifested by many eminent divines, in referring the splendid declaration of our Saviour, in one of his most celebrated prophecies, ‘not to the end of the world, but to the destruction of Jerusalem’—the long period of time which has elapsed since the day in which he said that the kingdom of heaven was *at hand*, and no appearance of a kingdom, in the common acceptance of the word, having been seen within the last thousand years, are, undoubtedly, circumstances calculated to excite our curiosity; and our author’s hypothesis deserves the attention of the Christian world. That his opinions on the divinity of our Saviour’s character differ from those of almost every known church, ought not to be an obstacle in the consideration of this question. The hypothesis stands independent of such consideration; and whether Christ gave up the kingdom, in his human character, at the end of forty years, or extended his meaning to four thousand from his resurrection, is of no consequence in the discussion of his appropriate divinity. Both the argument advanced in this work, and the manner of treating it, will, from their novelty, at least, be gratifying; and, whether we agree or disagree with the writer, we cannot but admire his patient investi-

gation and accurate reasoning on every subject he has undertaken to illustrate,

ART. IX.—*Original Poems, and Translations; particularly Ambra. From Lorenzo de' Medici. Chiefly by Susanna Watts.* 8vo. 4s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.

MISS Watts, if we remember rightly, is the lady who engaged in translating the Jerusalem of Tasso, and published a specimen of her performance some years ago. The specimen was executed with something more than mediocrity; but little encouragement was given her to persevere. Common readers were satisfied with the rhymes of Mr. Hoole; and they who understand the merit of English poetry will not exchange the stanzas of Fairfax for any modern couplets, however highly finished.

This lady, we perceive, still continues her predilection for Italian poetry. To the longest poem in the volume, the following account is prefixed, from Mr. Roscoe's great work.

" Among the poems of Lorenzo de' Medici, which have been preserved for three centuries, in manuscript, in the Laurentian library, and which are given to the publick for the first time at the close of this work, is a beautiful Ovidian allegory, intitled Ambra, being the name of a small island, formed by the river Ombrone, near Lorenzo's villa at Poggio Cojano, the destruction of which is the subject of the poem. This favourite spot he had improved and ornamented with great assiduity, and was extremely delighted with the retired situation and romantic aspect of the place. He was not, however, without apprehensions that the rapidity of the river might destroy his improvements; which misfortune he endeavoured to prevent by every possible precaution; but his cares were ineffectual: an inundation took place, and, sweeping away his labours, left him no consolation but that of immortalizing his Ambra in the poem now alluded to." p. ii.

The opening of the poem, though it has too many classic allusions, displays considerable genius.

' Fled is that season, which, with ripening ray,
To blushing fruit matur'd the blossoms gay;
No more the leaf its airy station keeps,
But strews th' impoverish'd groves in withering heaps;
Low rustling if, with hasty brushing feet,
The desolated path some hunter beat:—
No more in safety lurks the beast of prey,
The dry disorder'd leaves his track betray.

' Still blooms the laurel 'mid the forest drear,
And the sweet shrub to Cythera dear;
'Mid the white Alps the fir his verdure shows,
His branches bending with their weight of snows;

To some lone bird the cypress shelter lends,
 While with the winds the vigorous pine contends;
 The humble juniper, though thorns surround,
 The hand that gently crops forbears to wound;
 On some sweet sunny hill the olive grows,
 Now green, now silver, as the Zephyr blows,
 Distinguish'd high o'er all the sylvan scene,
 Propitious Nature feeds its constant green.

' The wand'ring birds with strength of wing endued,
 O'er trackless seas have led their weary brood;
 And show'd them as they pass'd, the sea-born train,
 Tritons and Nereids sporting in the main.

' Now night has gain'd the long-contested sway,
 And in proud triumph led the shorten'd day;
 Regirt with deathless fires she drives on high
 Her starry chariot round the tranquil sky,
 Soon as her vanquish'd rival's golden wain
 Sinks with faint lustre in the azure main:
 If Phœbus hither turn his radiant eye,
 See, cold Orion's sword his beam defy.
 But ah! behind Night's car, in awful state,
 Pale troops of Cares and anxious Vigils wait!
 And oft, though potent be its opiate pow'r,
 Subdue e'n Slumber in the silent hour;
 Mock the gay dreams that lull the weary mind,
 When adverse Fortune frowns with eye unkind;
 Which spreading bright their visionary lure,
 Give health and treasure to the sick and poor.

' Ah! wretched he! who thro' the dreary night
 With wakeful eye awaits the tardy light!
 Though faintly gay some fond idea smile,
 And hope of future bliss allure awhile;
 Though should at length his weary eye-lids meet,
 Exclude the mournful thought, admit the sweet;
 Sleep be or wake, the lingering night appears,
 Though time still flies, an age of countless years.

' Ah! wretched he! ordain'd, from shore remote,
 Through the long night on trackless seas to float;
 Where the blind prow the treacherous winds betray,
 And the fierce ocean yells, a beast of prey!
 With supplicating pray'rs and ardent vows,
 He calls Aurora from her antient spouse;
 Explores the dark expanse with aching sight,
 And counts the footsteps of the slow-pac'd night.' p. 3.

The story itself is a trite Ovidian fable. The damsel Ambra one day is bathing in the waters of Ombrone: the river-god sees her, comes out from his cavern, steals silently behind her, and catches her by her golden hair. She breaks away, leaving the lock in his hand.

'Light-bounding from the wave, by terror prest,
 She leaves behind her quiver, darts, and vest;
 Her tender feet, endued with matchless speed,
 Nor pointed rock, nor piercing bramble heed:
 In anguish keen the god deluded stands,
 Lifts his sad eye, and grasps his sorrowing hands.

"Ah! cruel hand!" with fond lament he cries,
 As on the plunder'd lock he casts his eyes,
 "Too swift this lovely tress to rend away;
 But ah! too slow that heavenly form to stay!"

'His fatal error wailing thus in vain,
 He hopes his voice at least the maid may gain,
 Though fail his steps—and loud with love-lorn tone,
 Th' enamour'd god his tender plaint makes known.

"A river godhead loves thee, beauteous dame!
 Through my cold waves you shot the ardent flame;
 Why, cruel fair one! thus affrighted flee?
 You sought my grateful waves, then shun not me?
 Love you my stream? ah! know, my rocky cave
 Boasts cooler shadows, and a clearer wave;
 My tide allures you—why myself resign?
 Son of great Appennine!—a pow'r divine!"

'Deaf to his prayer, he sees the nymph retreat,
 While fear gives pinions to her snowy feet;
 Inspir'd by love, the rapid god pursues,
 And rolls his torrent where her course he views;
 He sees the pointed stone, the thorny road,
 Her tender foot with piercing anguish goad;
 Still swifter as she spur'd her agile pace,
 The god, more ardent, urg'd th' impetuous chace.

'With panting speed the tender Ambra flies,
 Fleet as the blast that rushes through the skies;
 The slender stem that bears the golden grain,
 Might, on its ear unbent, her foot sustain.
 Ombrone marks her far-receding flight;
 At every step she lessens to his sight:
 When to an ample plain her course she steers,
 No lingering hope to reach the maid appears,
 While o'er impending cliffs and mountains rude,
 His rapid stream the flying fair pursued,
 He hop'd th' opposing rocks some aid would lend,
 And each steep pass his eager chace befriend;
 But when she gain'd th' expanding vale below,
 The wearied river found his course too slow:
 No barrier here her nimble foot delay'd,
 And his keen eye alone o'ertook the maid.' p. 16.

There is a miserable confusion here of the person and the thing personified: it is the god who seizes her by the hair,

and the stream that pursues her; presently it is the god again who calls upon Arno, one of his river acquaintance, to assist him. Arno then encircles her with his waters. She, in despair, calls upon Diana, the great agent in all poetical petrifications, and, in consequence, becomes a statue; but how the statue grew, or was metamorphosed into an island, this deponent sayeth not.

In the age of Lorenzo de' Medici, a poem like this might please, because, to the greater number of readers, it would have the effect of novelty; but now it can excite little interest, after 'a thousand and one' nymphs have been in like manner frozen or melted, according to the necessity of the case. The original poem was with much propriety published in Mr. Roscoe's history, where every thing relating to his hero ought to find a place. In itself it reflects little honour upon the country of Dante and Ariosto and Tasso; and we cannot think this version any acquisition to the stores of English literature. Miss Watts translates well; and we would recommend her to choose better originals. The smaller poems of Ariosto or of Tasso would be interesting for the fame of the author, though in themselves they might prove but of ordinary merit. In the lyric writers, and particularly in Filicaja, something might be found, some ore that would stand the fiery trial of translation. We particularly wish to see a good selection of Italian sonnets, of which a very valuable volume might be formed. English readers generally connect the idea of Petrarchal nonsense with the name of an Italian sonnet; but some of the sublimest poems in the language are in that shape—Bettinelli, Manfredi, and Filicaja, are hardly known in this country even by name.

The sonnets of Lorenzo de' Medici, though far inferior to those of the great masters whom we have mentioned, are yet of considerable merit. Miss Watts has translated a very pleasing one.

' Full oft my mind recalls, with tender care,
And memory ever shall preserve the trace,
The vest that wrapt her form, the time, the place,
When first I gaz'd, enraptur'd on my fair:
How then she look'd, thou, Love! art well aware,
For by her side thou kep'st with faithful pace;
Her beauty, virtue, gentleness, and grace,
No fancy can depict, no tongue declare:
O'er her white robe her shining tresses fell;
So sun-beams sporting on the Alpine heights,
Spread o'er the snow in many a golden ray;
But ah! the time, the place, I spare to tell;
'Tis Paradise where'er her foot alights,
And when her beauties shine abroad, 'tis day.' p. 27.

The remaining poems in this volume are trifling pieces produced upon trifling occasions—rhymes of the day upon follies of the day. The following is one of the best.

‘ Rhymes in Praise of Rhyme.

‘ By a Gentleman.

‘ Though we must own, poetic diction
Too oft delights to deal in fiction ;
Yet this is certain, honest Rhyme
Will tell plain truth at any time,
And in one word will oft say more,
Than the best Prose could in a score.
A few plain cases we shall state,
To free this matter from debate.

‘ Mark you yon glutton at a feast ?
And what says Rhyme ? he calls him—*beast* ;
See you yon drunkards swilling wine ?
Rhyme in a moment names them—*swine* ;
When Flavia, not content with four,
Adds a fifth husband to her store,
Rhyme *thinks* a word, but speaks no more ; }
What wants that senator who blusters,
And all his tropes and figures musters,
Against the man who rules the steerage ?
Rhyme whispers in your ear—*a peerage*.
What makes yon patriot strain his lungs,
And bawl as loud as twenty tongues,
To prove his country's dire disgrace ?
Rhyme smiling says—*a place, a place*.
When priests above seek their abode,
Yet love to loiter on the road,
And still on lords and statesmen fawn,
Rhyme shakes his head, and whispers—*lawn*.
Which is the nymph, who, soon as seen,
Is hail'd through Europe, beauty's queen,
Before whose charms the fairest fade ?
Rhyme gently sighs—the *British maid*.
Which is the man, whose daring soul
Conducts in war, from pole to pole,
His country's proud triumphant car ?
Rhyme shouts aloud—the *British tar*.’ p. 88.

There is little to censure in this collection of miscellanies, but there is little to praise ; when once read, it will never be recurred to. They should have remained in manuscript : from the cheerfulness and the courtesy of private society, they would have received higher approbation than we can bestow. They have a certain portion of merit, but not enough to preserve them. Parnassus has its deciduous plants,

as well as its laurels. The ephemera, though they rise from the waters of Helicon, live but a day.

ART. X. — *Londinium Redivivum; or, an antient History and modern Description of London. Compiled from Parochial Records, Archives of various Foundations, the Harleian MSS. and other authentic Sources. By James Peller Malcolm. Vol. I. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.*

THE earliest account of London was that of Fitz-Stephen, who died in 1191; and which, after passing through various editions, was published, in a very correct translation, by Mr. Pegge, in 1772. The next was by that indefatigable antiquary John Stow; which, after many additions and improvements by various editors, particularly Strype, was published in its most complete form, in two large volumes folio, in 1754. Since that time, nothing has been done to illustrate the history of the metropolis, or, by recording its many improvements, to retain the memory of its ancient site. Maitland's, although a compilation of considerable merit, is but a compilation; and Dr. Entick, who professed to bring down the last edition to the year 1775, has done little more than continue the historical part, or first volume, by a detail of the political contests occasioned by the administration of lord Bute, and the writings and sufferings of John Wilkes. He did not add an atom to the antiquities or local description. Various compilations might be noticed under the names of 'Histories,' or 'Descriptions of London,' published in the course of the last century; but they are all abridgements, without any new matter, of Stow or Maitland. Two, indeed, must be excepted—the 'New View of London,' two volumes, octavo, 1708, in which we have an architectural description of the churches, as they then stood; and 'London and its Environs described,' in six volumes, octavo, 1761, in which is an architectural description of the modern churches and buildings, and some catalogues of paintings in the houses of the nobility, which, we have been told, Horace Walpole procured. The whole of the articles are thrown into an alphabetical form: but many of them are superficial; and, from the lapse of time, almost all are now become obsolete. Mr. Pennant's pleasant book is well known to our readers: but it is not, and does not pretend to be, a history; although we cannot but wish the author had written it in that or in some other regular form. It produced, indeed, one good effect: several artists were induced to publish a series of views, &c. taken from ancient

prints, to illustrate Pennant; and thus some materials are provided, at an easy rate, for future historians.

We are now invited to the consideration of a work, which is to comprise 'An ancient History and modern Description of London.' What Mr. Malcolm intends is thus modestly expressed in the advertisement.

'Being an ardent admirer of the antient and modern wonders of this great metropolis, I am sanguine enough to hope its attractions may be described once more without producing satiety. That I might present to the world a work worthy of its patronage, I sought for a path which would lead me to unknown facts; whether it is found, and if found whether it has been pursued to any purpose, my readers must decide.' P. i.

We have no hesitation in believing that the decision will be favourable; for, although he has not rendered us independent of the labours of Stow, he has brought together a vast mass of curious matter, little of which had ever been published before, from the most authentic records, from the MSS. in the Museum, from parish registers, and from the archives of St. Paul's, the Abbey, and the Charter-house. That the facts here collected are all of equal importance, is not assumed; nor is it necessary: but, from a pretty attentive perusal, we may affirm, that, with very few exceptions, they all contribute to illustrate the history and manners of our ancestors, and consequently to gratify a species of curiosity which is both innocent and laudable.

The contents of this volume are, the parishes of St. Alphage, London Wall—Allhallows, Thames-street—Allhallows, Lombard-street—St. Andrew Undershaft—St. Mary Axe—St. Bartholomew the Great, and Less—St. Benedict, Gracechurch-street—St. Leonard, East-cheap—St. Botolph, Bishopsgate—and St. Bridget, Fleet-street; with the abbey church of St. Peter, Westminster, and the Charter-house. The reader will perceive that the order is alphabetical; but, for some reasons hinted by the author, not strictly so, as several parishes have not yet been surveyed, which would have appeared under the letter A.

The work commences with some remarks on the increase of London, in which the author adverts to that wonderful proof of the fallacy of conjecture—sir William Petty's 'Political Arithmetic, 1683.' Sir William endeavours to demonstrate that the growth of London must stop of itself before the year 1800; at which time, he adds, the population must exceed *five millions*! We have next a sketch of the improvements projected by the late duke of Bedford on the northern side of the metropolis, the forest discovered under the late

of Dogs, and the West-India docks. The following observations on 'London, in a picturesque point of view,' show that our author can make something agreeable of a very unpleasant circumstance.

'Smoke, so great an enemy to all prospects, is the everlasting companion of this great city. Yet is the smoke of London emblematic of its magnificence.

'At times, when the wind, changing from the west to the east, rolls the vast volumes of sulphur towards each other, columns ascend to a great height, in some parts bearing a blue tinge, in others a pale flame colour, and in a third, accumulated and dense, they darken portions of the city, till the back rooms require candles. A resident in London cannot form an idea of the grand and gloomy scene: it must be viewed from the environs.

'In the spring, before fires are discontinued, during a calm day, Vesuvius itself can scarcely exceed this display of smoke. It is pleasing to observe the black streams which issue from the different manufactories; sometimes darting upward, while every trifling current gives graceful undulations; at others rolling in slow movements, blending with the common mass; but when the dreary season of November arrives, and the atmosphere is damp and dark, a change in the wind produces an effect dismal and depressing. The smoke sometimes mixes with the clouds, and then they assume an electric appearance. When the sun breaks through this veil during the summer, its beams have a wonderful effect on the trees and grass; the green is bright, and inconceivably beautiful.

'London is not without attractions on a dark evening; chiefly so in the winter, when a strong south wind prevails. It is then that the innumerable lights in the shops and streets send their rays toward heaven; but, meeting with the smoke depressed by a wet air, they are reflected and multiplied, making an arch of splendour, against which the houses and steeples appear in strong outlines. I have found the reflection so powerful as to dazzle my sight, and make the paths dark and dangerous. A general illumination occasions great brilliancy. The effect was very striking in the nights of the rejoicing in October 1798, for lord Nelson's victory at the Nile. I am at a loss to describe my sensations during the scene; for the light was as amazing as the continued roar of guns was deafening.

'It has been my lot to be in a city while cannon shook our houses, and flames were consuming its suburbs; but the effect was different. The atmosphere over London was a clear light, like the first approach of day; the former fierce and red.

'The sounds of musquetry and pistols in London were incessant. Not so the shotted cannon; each explosion was distinct, shook the windows, and rebounded through the streets.

'Let us now view our subject from the surrounding country; and this should be done on a summer morning before the industrious inhabitants begin their labours. The most perfect and delightful landscape is that from Hampstead-heath, when the wind blows strong from the east. Then it is that the clear bright sand of the fore-ground, broken into a thousand grotesque shapes, gives lustre to the projecting front

of Highgate, topped with verdure, and serving as a first distance; from which in gradual undulations the fields retire, till lost in a blue horizon. Hence, spread before you, are numberless objects to please the most difficult. The suburbs, as advanced guards, meet the eye in all directions, contrasting their fawn-coloured sides with the neighbouring trees. Beyond them reposes in full majesty the main body, with its mighty queen, whose lofty cupola overlooks her phalanx of children, armed with spires of various sizes and beauty, protected to the south by a long chain of hills.

‘ An accurate eye will trace the Thames by the white sails of the shipping.

‘ Another fine view is from the observatory in Greenwich park, well known.

‘ Putney common affords a charming picture, including the towns and river above Westminster. St. Paul's, and the abbey of St. Peter, with several spires, may be grouped in many pleasing forms from this place. The fore-ground is very excellent.

‘ Primrose-hill shews the western parishes to most advantage; but sir Roger de Coverly's "heathenish sight" still exists from St. Paul's upwards.

‘ For a commercial city the ground of London is admirably calculated, though for scenery not so well, the hills being too inconsiderable to shew parts in detail. Any person who hath seen the broken ground at Greenwich will comprehend my meaning. I do not recollect any situation from which London may be looked down on, those of sufficient height being too distant.

‘ The metropolis forms a noble termination to the extensive views from Harrow, Richmond hill, Camberwell, and all the hills from Sutton to Sydenham.

‘ Much of the external splendour of London, I conceive, must have been lost on the suppression of religious houses. Numerous towers and spires were destroyed, and those of the most venerable character. Several attempts to preserve St. John's, Clerkenwell, and St. Augustine's, were without success.

‘ The conflagration of 1666 reduced the number of parish churches considerably. To my taste, Gothic spires and pinnacles are far more picturesque than the modern fashion of erecting Grecian. Many of our market towns will justify this observation, where perhaps three tall steeples enriched with quatrefoils and foliage, and a fourth an embattled tower, abounding with ornaments, rise from houses and trees in a groupe so pleasing, we could almost imagine we were about to enter an imperial city. In fact, I think London extremely deficient in this respect, very few of the spires being of great height, and chiefly without decoration; I beg to be understood to except those of Bow, St. Bride, St. Martin, St. Giles, St. Dunstan in the East, Shore-ditch, and a few others.’ p. 11.

St. Alphege, London Wall, is the first parish described; and to its history a number of very curious particulars are added, with an accurate transcript of the memorials of the dead, and a list of births, marriages, deaths, &c. from the registers. This parish includes an account of Sion-college

and library; and a catalogue of the pictures, with biographical notices: The same plan is observed in the descriptions of Allhallows, Lombard-street, and Thames-street. In the former, a curious relation of George Fox, the celebrated quaker, is transcribed from a MS. in the Museum. — In St. Andrew Undershaft, Mr. Malcolm very naturally invokes the shade of Stow, and makes the following remarks on his monument:

‘ I should have called it alabaster, if Mr. Strype had not asserted it is of a composition baked. The substance has the solidity and sparkling appearance of that valuable stone. Stowe was upwards of eighty when he died; and we are told his beard was originally painted grey. The order of nature is reversed; and, near two hundred years after his interment, his hair becomes jet black. The furrowed features of this excellent statue would warrant the change to grey again, on its receiving another coat of paint; the attitude and expression are so true. The tablet resting on his knees. The real pen placed in his hand, with the gentle inclination of the head, give it incredible animation.’
p. 65.

In this parish, we have an account of the East-India-house, with a print of their original, and comparatively mean, hall.

The history of the Abbey, which follows, is very copious and minute, a variety of monumental notices, inscriptions, pavements, paintings, &c. having been brought to light in the course of our author's painful researches. How far he has improved on the labours of his predecessors, may appear, at least, in one instance, from his description of the tomb of Henry VII.

‘ I shall now attempt a description of this wonderful piece of architecture, where some new perfection may be discovered after the fiftieth examination: and first, the gates of brass. The great gate is divided into sixty-five squares. Those contain pierced crowns and portcullis, the king's initials, fleurs de lis, an eagle, three thistles springing through a coronet, their stalks terminating in seven feathers, three lions, and a crown supported by sprigs of roses. On each division is a rose, and between them dragons. The smaller gates contain twenty-eight squares each, with the above emblems. The two pillars between the gates are twice filleted, and the capitals are foliage. The animals, badges of the king, hold fanciful shields on them, but have lost their heads. The angles of the three arches are all filled with lozenges, circles, and quatrefoils. Thirteen busts of angels crowned extend across the nave; between them are five portcullisses, three roses, and three fleurs de lis, all under crowns. From hence to the roof is filled by a great window of many compartments, so much intersected and arched, that a description would not be comprehended. The upper part contains figures in painted glass, crosses, or crowns, and fleurs de lis, single feathers of the prince of Wales's crest, red and

blue mantles, crowns and portcullis, crowns and garters, crowns and red rose, and two roses or wheels full of red, blue, and yellow glass. But little light passes through this window, it is so near the end of the abbey, and covered with dust. Several fragments of pinnacles in glass remain in the arches of the lower divisions, which, I imagine, were parts of the canopies over saints.

‘ The side aisles have four arches hid by the stalls. The clustered pillars between them support great arches on the roof, each of which have twenty-three pendant small semi-quatrefoil arches on their surface.

‘ Four windows, very like the western, fill the spaces next the roof; in all of them painted glass, of three lions, fleurs de lis, and red and blue panes. Under the windows the architect and his sculptor have exerted their utmost abilities; and exquisite indeed are the canopies, niches, and their statues, which they have left for our admiration. There are five between each pillar. Trios of two-part pinnacled buttresses form the divisions. The canopies are semi-sexagons. Their decorations and open work are beautifully delicate; over them is a cornice, and a row of quatrefoils; and the battlement is a rich ornament of leaves. The statues all stand on blank labels; and, although the outline of the pedestals are alike, the tracery and foliage differ in each. Beneath those is the continuation of half-length angels, before described on the west wall.

‘ As many of my readers are most probably unacquainted with the legends of Roman catholic saints, I shall describe the statues as they stand, without appropriating them. Those who are conversant in legends will name them from their emblems. The first five to the north-west are cardinals and divines. The next a figure with St. Peter's keys on his hat. The second one holding a mitre. The third a prelate, whose hand is licked by an imperfect animal. The fourth a fine studious old man, St. Anthony, reading; a pig at his feet; and a prelate blessing a female figure kneeling before him. The next compartment, a bishop reading, with a spindle in one hand, a king, a bishop; a king, and a bishop wresting the dart from Death, who is prostrate under his feet. Under the fourth window, a priest uncovering the oil for extreme unction; St. Lawrence, with the gridiron, reading; a venerable old man, with flowing hair, bearing something (decayed) on a cushion; a priest; and the fifth a female, probably a prioress.

‘ On the south side, commencing at the great arch which separates the nave from the chancel, a king reading, an old man reading, one playing on a pipe or flute, St. Sebastian bound to a tree, and a figure with a bow. Further on, a bishop with his crosier in the left hand, and with his right he holds a crowned head placed on the corner of his robe; a queen; a bishop with a crosier and wallet; a king with a sceptre, and head in his left hand, St. Denys; the fifth a bishop.

‘ Under the third window, the first statue is removed; a bishop reading; St. George and the dragon; a mitred statue supporting a child with a tender and compassionate air; the fifth a priest in a devout attitude. The last window, a female holding a label; a cardinal reading; one with a label; and another cardinal.

‘ There are eight statues belonging to the great arch before men-

tioned, four on each side; two of those are a continuation of the niches, and the others over them. The statues consist of a prelate before a desk, with a lion fawning on them; another reading. Above, two religious about the same employment. Those are on the south. On the opposite side one of the figures is gone; the other is a bishop giving the benediction. The upper ones, reading statues of old men.

‘ The chancel is semi-circular, and consists of five sides. The windows are like the others. The eastern has a painting of an old man in fine colours. The angels, niches, and enrichments, are continued round. The statues are a female saint kneeling, a coroneted female, a monk with a boy singing by his side; one mutilated; a figure bearing a cross in his right hand, and reading; one reading; another with a spear and book, St. Thomas; a fine animated statue consecrating the contents of a chalice; a pilgrim; one reading.

‘ It is with difficulty the eastern figures can be seen, from the cross lights; but the first is St. Peter.

‘ The south-east side has a statue reading, another in meditation, a third giving the benediction, and two bearing what cannot be discerned. The next a female, an old man, a pilgrim, a female holding a tower on her left hand, and reading, and a saint with his book, supported by a cross.

‘ Those seventy-three statues are all so varied in their attitudes, features, and drapery, that it is impossible to say any two are alike. The disposition of their limbs is shewn through the clothing; and the folds of their robes fall in those bold-marked lines, which is the characteristic of superior sculpture and painting. Why cannot some of our artists follow this art, instead of dividing their drapery like rolls of parchment tied together at one end?

‘ The arch which forms the division between the nave and chancel is bounded by clustered pillars. Its intercolumniation is another proof of the consummate skill of the great architect. The variety and beauty of the divisions I shall attempt to describe, from the base upwards. Two niches are the first ornaments, but the statues are gone. Their pedestals are octagons; the shafts adorned with arched pannels, and the frieze with foliage, fighting dragons, grape vines, and shields with roses. The niches are surmounted by pointed arches foliaged. On the pillar between them, angels hold a rose on the north side, and a portcullis on the south; those are supported on the sides by greyhounds and dragons. Two crowns in alto relievo over them have been beaten to pieces. Each niche has two slender pillars on their backs, with delicate groins. Other decorations consist of oak branches and acorns.

‘ Above the great arch over the niches are pannels and quatrefoils, and a frieze of branches and roses, with a cornice and battlements. The next compartment has the arms of Henry VII. under an arch, with the dragon and greyhound as supporters. Two angels issue from the side pillars, and suspend the crown over the arms; but they have been under the fangs of the destroyer on both sides.

‘ Another frieze of branches, with a foliaged battlement, crosses the intercolumniation. Higher are two lozenges within squares, each containing four circles, and in them quatrefoils. The next are the angels, and niches over them, which have been noticed before.

'The arch across the roof is filled with pointed pannels in two ranges, divided at intervals by ovals and quatrefoils, containing badges. The extreme lines of the arches are indented with small arches.

'The east ends of the side ailes are formed into beautiful little chapels, before which is the basement of their skreens. The lower part is a range of circles, containing quatrefoils, roses, and fleurs de lis; higher, arches and quatrefoils, with a frieze of dragons, greyhounds, faces, and sprigs: the top embattled. From this other ornaments, forming the top of these circular skreens, once arose. They are forever lost, and their places supplied with a paling of rough deal; such is the *economy* of our age and the *extravagance* of former times.

'They both had grand altar-pieces; and, wonderful to tell, they have been but little injured. The marks of the altars are visible still. Over them are arched pannels surmounted by quatrefoils; on which is a row of angels, with the king's badges, and above, three superb niches, whose ornaments and canopies are extremely rich. On the top of the middle one is a seated lion, and on the right the greyhound; to the left a dragon. The centre niche on the south chapel is empty; but the right contains a statue, about four feet high, of a venerable man, who reads from a book rested on the hilt of a sword. A mitred figure on the left was probably intended for St. Dionysius; for he supports with much veneration a mitred head which has been cut off. Those are both noble figures, with excellent drapery, and faces full of expression. The sides of the chapels, and the whole of the lower parts of the building, have waved windows, whose ichnography is thus: ~~~~~ The west ends are similar to the east, from the pavement to the angels; above which, they are paneled, and terminate to the shape of the roof in foliated arches.

'The cieling consists of several circles paneled: and in the centre is a lozenge within a lozenge, containing a circle; and eight quatrefoils round a lozenge, on which is a rich fleur de lis.' p. 129.

The length of this extract must be our excuse for omitting to notice many other discoveries and particulars, in the survey of the abbey, which have the merit of novelty. The following remark, in a note, seems worthy of consideration.

'I am sorry to add that the nave is to be filled between the pillars with isolated monuments. From the hour that the first is introduced I date the destruction of all the beautiful symmetry I have so often admired. Besides, there will be such a confusion of lights, that not one figure will have its due effect in either of the aisles.' p. 175.

We never heard of this design before: it is truly barbarous.

In the history of the parish of St. Bartholomew the Great, Mr. Malcolm transcribes the miracles of St. Bartholomew, from the MS. in the Museum. It affords some account of the customs of the ancient priory, but perhaps might have admitted of abridgement. It is needless to inform many of our readers that this parish abounds in subjects of curiosity

for the antiquary. The church was one of the few which escaped the fire in 1666, but has not escaped the innovating and ruinous hand of modern improvement. Nearly the whole of the matter here collected is new. We shall give only a short specimen concerning the remains of the church and priory.

‘ The eastern side of Smithfield contains a fragment, once an entrance to the church, with beautiful ribs, sculptured into roses and zig-zag ornaments. It serves as a passage to the iron gates of the church-yard, through which the mutilated half of the priory may be seen, fronted by a flimsy skreen of brick, placed against the massy old arches of Norman architecture.

‘ The ground has been raised several feet on the pavement of the old church. The wall on the south side is tolerably perfect, and serves as the back of a public house, now placed where the north cloister stood. An arch was, probably, a door into it. Smoke, and ill usage, have given it the appearance of the ruins of a dungeon.

‘ The tower is of red brick, embattled, with two buttresses. An arched door with a pediment over it, and above several windows; and on the roof of the tower a small turret. The church is stuccoed, and this front has a large door, and very large window.

‘ On turning to the right, we pass along the west side of the cloisters, in an alley, or court, between them and Duck lane. This part is so far demolished that only a few flints are discoverable in the bases of the houses; and the area is a farrago of sheds, walls, &c. &c. On crossing it, through the riding ground of Mr. Wheeler, livery-stable keeper, we find a scene of hateful degradation. Horses tied for the purpose of shoeing to the outside, and horses standing in the inside of the beautiful eastern cloister. Why was not this precious remnant converted into a passage to the church; and thus, in some degree, preserved to its original sacred use? Can London boast such another stable? I hope not. The arches, groins, and key stones, are perfect, most delicate, and exquisitely proportioned, of true Gothic elegance. The sculpture consists of what the plate will better describe than words.

Mr. Wheeler keeps his cloister-stable roof as clean as white-wash will make it, and is very obliging. The cloister is 95 feet long, and 15 broad. The court leads to the close, where we find a modern square; and though we are now directly facing the refectory, not a vestige of antient architecture is visible, that part which projects into the close being faced with brick.

‘ The windows are transformed into large ones of the present fashion. The length is 120 feet, by 30 in breadth. Some idea may be formed of its original state, by the northern half, now a calico-glazier's shop; but the south part is a suite of very good apartments, inhabited by the worthy rector, Mr. Edwardes.

‘ The roof is very strong, and full of timber, and remains nearly as it was when the refectory.

‘ In the N. E. corner of the square, a passage has been cut through the cellars; and here the strength and solidity of the walls may be seen, with massy arches, and stout groins. The cellar of Mr. Edwardes cannot be paralleled in London for coolness and durability.

' At the south end of the east cloister there was a space 50 feet by 26, probably a court, through which the brethren passed to and from the refectory. The above passage turns to the north, where part of the old walls and a battered window that lighted the vaults are still to be seen.

' I am led to suppose, from the crazy lath and plaster buildings that present themselves, and clog up this part, that they were some of the later menial offices, erected perhaps by Bolton. Dark and damp as this place is, one solitary tree lends its shade to veil those neglected ruins.

' The lesser close contained the prior's stables: their exact site is not known. A gateway was standing within the memory of man leading to the wood-yard, kitchens, &c. An antient mulberry-tree grew near it, and beneath its branches the good wives and maids of the parish were wont to promenade. Houses have usurped their place.' p. 288.

The history of St. Botolph, Bishopsgate, is very ample. On the wall of the stairs leading to the north gallery of the church, hangs an old picture of Charles I, emblematically describing his sufferings. Mr. Malcolm gives a minute account of it, but says he can find no mention of it in any of the parish books. The fact, we believe, was—that, after the restoration, similar pictures were placed in many of the churches: there is now one, if we be not mistaken, in Rotherhithe church; and the subject, as Mr. Malcolm has described it, is the same with that of a folding print in the early editions of the *Eikôn Basilike*, one of which now lies before us*. It is a trumpery performance; but was then popular, as a remembrance of the sufferings of that unhappy monarch.

In p. 349 of the history of this parish, Mr. Malcolm gives the following extract from a newspaper of 1663.

' Sept. 7, 1663. This day was laid to sleep with his fathers, in a hole in Bedlam church-yard, the oracle and idoll of the faction, one Henry Jessy, whose body was attended with a strange medley of phanatiques, that met upon the very point of time all at the same instant, to do honour to their departed brother.' p. 349.

Mr. Malcolm might have consulted Wood, Calamy, or even Granger, for a more satisfactory account of Mr. Jessy, who was not more a *phanatique* than the majority of the clergy at that period. But, in this and some other passages, we have perceived an inclination in our author to brand the non-conformists with one general reproach. This may suit the times we live in; but an antiquary ought to surmount prejudices.

The history of the Chartreuse, or Charter-house, is re-

* We are not certain which preceded—the print or the painting. If the former, the painter must have been lamentably deficient in invention.

plete with new matter: but, as it consists of a series of minute particulars and short transcripts, an extract would give but an imperfect idea of its value to the inquisitive reader. The description of the *old court-room* may perhaps add to its visitors.

‘ The old court-room is one of the very few now remaining in London whose decorations are of the time of queen Elizabeth. It is magnificent, though mutilated; and venerable, though the cieling has been white-washed. That bane of antiquity and of all taste has demolished the emblazoned armorial distinctions painted and gilded under the direction of the duke of Norfolk, to whose family they belonged. The cieling is flat; and the crests and supporters, within circular and square pannels, are of stucco. The duke’s motto, “*Sola virtus invicta*,” is inscribed at the north end. The walls are hung with tapestry; the clue to the story of which I have not been able to find. A siege is one subject: but, though it is otherwise perfect, the colours have in many places faded, even to obliteration of the figures.

‘ The chimney-piece is most lavishly adorned. The basement is formed by four Tuscan pillars; in the intercolumniations are gilded shields, containing paintings of Mars and Minerva. Over the fireplace are Faith, Hope, and Charity, on pannels of gold. The next division is composed of four Ionic pillars; between them arched pannels, with fanciful gilded ornaments. The pedestals contain paintings of the Annunciation and Last Supper: the figures in those are of gold upon a black ground, and extremely well done. The space between the pedestals is filled by a gold ground, on which Mr. Sutton’s arms and initials have been introduced. Scrolls and Cupids fill the intervals. The great centre pannel is of gold; with an oval containing the arms of James the First, and a carved cherubim beneath. I need not add that those were introduced by Mr. Sutton’s executors.

‘ Two pillars, half Gothic half Grecian, support the cieling at the upper end of the room, placed there since 1611; near them is a large projecting window of 16 divisions, and two others of eight further south. Mr. Sutton’s arms in painted glass adorn them, the date 1614. The only use now made of this apartment is for the anniversary dinner of the founder.

‘ In what other house shall we find so interesting an apartment! Let my reader trace these pages back, and he will see that almost every illustrious character which England has produced, from the time of Henry VIII. down to that of Charles the First, has frequented this room, either as inhabitants, attendants on queen Elizabeth and James the First, as visitors of the illustrious owners, or as governors of Mr. Sutton’s charity. During the interregnum all the principals of the factious party have been within it; and since their overthrow, the governors have been men of the first eminence in the law, politicks, and divinity.’ P. 429.

The plates, engraved by Mr. Malcolm to illustrate this work, are:—1. Abbot Warc’s Pavement and Fragments; 2. Edward the Confessor on the side of Sebert’s Tomb; 3. Altar of St. Blase; 4. Figures on the tomb of Richard the Second; 5. Autographs of Dean Dolben, &c.; 6. Specimens

from an illuminated book; 7. St. Bartholomew's south transept; 8. Inside view of the same; 9. St. Bartholomew's the Less; 10. Autographs of the governors of the Charterhouse. It is needless to add that all these acquisitions are new, except Edward the Confessor, taken, by permission of Mr. Nichols, from an engraving by Schnebbelie, executed in the year 1791.

The sketch we have now given of this work is confessedly imperfect: but, from the nature of the contents, ample justice cannot be done to it by abridgement or analysis. It is a book for record and for consultation; and consists of many thousand notices and minutes, which, separately taken, might appear of little value. We approve, however, the laudable industry of the author; and hope that he will meet with such encouragement as may enable him to persist in his plan, and, which is the chief purpose of it, supply the deficiencies of former writers. In his descriptions, he aims chiefly at fidelity; and we may add that he is, in general, simple and perspicuous. We would not advise, him, however, to wander, as he sometimes does, too much into the affected elegancies of reflexion. We shall not be so fastidious as to point out any of these puerile pertnesses: but he will understand our meaning in this, exhorting him not to attempt *fine writing*. The book is, in every other respect, a most valuable addition to our topographical knowledge of the metropolis.

ART. XI.—*Essay on Irish Bulls.* By Richard Lovell Edgeworth, and Maria Edgeworth. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

THAT other nations make bulls as well as the Irish, is a position so trite and so easily admissible, that we were at first surprised to find a whole volume employed in proving it. Blunders in speech of the bull-kind are the offspring of ignorance or carelessness, and must consequently be committed by the ignorant and careless of whatever nation. That the Irish therefore enjoy a monopoly of blunders, is what few will seriously maintain, although it has suited the minor wits of the jest-book and modern drama to place every thing of this nature to their account. Stories have been multiplied in idea, merely by repetition; and the same story told a hundred times has, with the inconsiderate, amounted to a hundred proofs that an Irishman is 'your only bull-maker.' To disprove this prejudice, appears to be the intention of the work before us, in which we can promise our readers much entertainment, while we have many objections

to the manner in which the Irish are defended, and should certainly not chuse the authors as our counsel in a similar cause.

The point in dispute is, whether the Irish have a characteristic propensity to bull-making, not to be found in other nations. In order to prove that they have not, our authors first consider the etymology of the word *bull*, which they have not been able to discover ; and, secondly, they attempt the definition of a bull, which is equally and confessedly unsuccessful. They next make a collection of the *most famous* Irish bulls, and contrast them with English bulls of the same magnitude ; but, before we admit this evidence, we must demand proof of the reality of the Irish bulls brought together here, since they appear to have been taken from vulgar jest-books or newspapers, or from those who *remember to have read* in newspapers this or that bull. This is no authority ; for it is well known that there now is, and always has been, a set of wits connected with newspapers and magazines, who carry on a regular manufactory of bulls, which they vend to their employers with the *Irish mark* upon them. Our authors have successfully traced some of these to ancient books, although reported of persons living, or who were living very lately. Thus far we agree with them, and reject such evidence as inadmissible. On the other hand, we must also reject some passages from Shakspeare, Milton, and other poets, which are produced as evidence of English bull-making, because they belong to another class, that of extravagant hyperbole.

After this evidence has been exhibited, the trial is interrupted by a story of little Dominic, an Irish boy, educated by a rigid Welch schoolmaster. The story is well told ; and the moral is, that ' Irish blunders are never mistakes of the heart.' But why are we interrupted with such a story or such a moral ? Has any person ever asserted that Irish bulls are mistakes of the heart ? Yet here the evidence appears to close on the part of the defendant ; and his counsel now proceed in a train of proofs, which almost induces us to suspect that they had thrown up their briefs, or had been secretly retained on the other side. The accusation was, that the Irish have a characteristic propensity to bull-making ; and hitherto the bulls advanced *pro* and *con* have been single expressions, or, to speak in the gentlest terms, slips of the tongue, and many of them perhaps the pure invention of jest-book-makers. The following evidence, brought forward in chap. VIII, is of another kind.

' We lamented in our last chapter, that there is nothing new under the sun, yet, perhaps, the thoughts and phraseology of the following story may not be familiar to the English.

"Plase your honour," says a man, whose head is bound up with a garter, in token and commemoration of his having been at a fair the preceding night—"Plase your honour, it's what I am striving since six o'clock and before, this morning, becaàse I'd sooner trouble your honour's honour than any man in all Ireland, on account of your character, and having lived under your family, me and mine, twenty years, aye, say forty again to the back o'that, in the old gentleman's time, as I well remember before I was born; that same time I heard tell of your own honour's riding a little horse in green with your gun before you, a grousing over our town-lands, which was the mill and abbey of Ballymagobogg, though 'tis now set away from me (owing to them that be-~~lieved~~ my father) to Christy Salmon, becaàse he's an Orange-man—or his wife—though he was once (let him deny it who can); to my sar-tain knowledge, behind the haystack in Tullygore, sworn in a united man by captain Alick, who was hanged—Pace to the dead any how! —Well, not to be talking too much of that now, only for this Christy Salmon, I should be still living under your honour."

"Very likely; but what has all this to do with the present business. If you have any complaint to make againt Christy Salmon, make it—if not, let me go to dinner."

"Oh, it would be too bad to be keeping your honour from your dinner, but I'll make your honour sensible immadiately. It is not of Christy Salmon at all at all I'm talking. May be your honour is not sensible yet who I am—I am Paddy M'Doole, of the Curragh, and I've been a flax-dresser and dealer since I parted your honour's land, and was last night at the fair of Clonaghiltilty, where I went just in a quiet way thinking of nothing at all, as any man might, and had my little yarn along with me, my wife's and the girl's year's spinning, and all just hoping to bring them back a few honest shillings as they dis-sarved—none better!—Well, plase your honour, my beast lost a shoe, which brought me late to the fair, but not so late but what it was as throng as ever: you could have walked over the heads of the men, women, and childer, a foot and a horseback, all buying and selling, so I to be sure thought no harm of doing the like, so I makes the best bargain I could of the little hanks for my wife and the girl, and the man I sold them to was just weighing them at the crane and I standing forenent him—success to myself! said I, looking at the shillings I was putting into my waistcoat pocket for my poor family, when up comes the inspector, whom I did not know, I'll take my oath, from Adam, nor couldn't know, becaàse he was the deputy inspector, and had been but just made, of which I was ignorant, by this book and all the books that ever were shut and opened—but no matter for that; he seizes my hanks out of the scales, that I had just sold, saying they were unlawful and forfeit, becaàse by his watch it was past four o'clock, which I denied to be possible, plase your honour, becaàse not one, nor two, nor three, but all the town and country were selling the same as myself in broad day, only when the deputy came up they stopped, which I could not, by rason I did not know him.—"Sir," says I (very civil), "if I had known you it would have been another case, but any how I hope no jantleman will be making it a crime to a poor man to sell his little matter of yarn for his wife and childer after two o'clock, when he did not know it was contrary to law at all at all."

"I gave you notice that it was contrary to law at the fair of Edgertown," said he.—'I axe your pardon, sir,' said I, 'it was my brother, for I was by.'—With that he calls me liar, and what not, and takes a grip of me and I a grip of my flax, and he had a shilala and I had none, so he gave it me over the head, I crying 'murder! murder!' the while, and clinging to the scales to save me, and they set a swinging and I with them, plase your honour, till the bame comes down a'top o'the back o'my head, and kilt me as your honour sees."

"I see that you are alive still, I think."

"It's not his fault if I am, plase your honour, for he left me for dead, and I am as good as dead still: if it be plasing to your honour to examine my head, you'll be sinsible I'm telling nothing but the truth. Your honour never seen a man kilt as I was and am—all which I am ready (when convanient) to swear before your honour." p. 104.

Now, in order to adjust the comparative merits of different nations in the article of bull-making, or confusion of ideas, it must surely appear necessary to find a parallel for the speech of this complainant. But where will that be found? And, if not to be found, how comes it here, if not as a direct proof of the characteristic propensity which it is the object of this work to rebut?

The low Irish, we are told, use a language highly figurative; and, as a proof of this, in chap. X. we have, in a tedious story of a shoeblack, a specimen of the slang language of Dublin, an exact counterpart of the slang language of the Old Bailey, Bow-street, and other resorts of thieves and highwaymen. But here are no bulls; and we are therefore at a loss to discover what connexion the story has with the question in point. The Joe Millar story, added as its companion, is one of those vulgar fictions which are common with the makers of newspaper jests and studied extempores. The 'Hibernian Mendicant,' which follows, is yet more out of place. It cannot be too often repeated, that the virtues of the heart are not implicated in the present dispute. We hasten therefore to what is, unfortunately for the defendant, positive proof of the characteristic propensity.

Chapters XIV. and XV. contain a dialogue carried on in a stage-coach by an Englishman, an Irishman, and a Scotchman, relative to the present question. They are men of education, good breeding, and good sense. Nothing passes, therefore, but what is free from indecorum and prejudice. Each very politely wishes to prove his *own* the bull-making nation; but the Irishman is made to gain the victory, by relating (chap. XVI.) a long story, which, if it be allowed to prove any thing, proves decidedly that an Irishman, who has been able to conquer his *brogue*, and speak English like a native of England, cannot by any means get rid of a *propensity to make bulls*. The story is indeed a fiction; but, as

it is advanced by the counsel for the defendant at the close of their pleadings, we are bound to receive it as evidence; and sorry to add, that it overturns the whole of the preceding arguments, and especially that in which it is maintained that Irish bulls are principally occasioned by an ignorance of the English language.

The concluding chapter has likewise an unfortunate tendency to favour the common prejudices which are the subject of the volume. The authors had adopted the ironical style; and now think it necessary to inform their readers of a circumstance so obvious, that the information is surely not a compliment. Many better compliments, however, are paid to the character of the Irish nation, in which, we trust, every man will join who has had an opportunity of witnessing their generous, good-humoured, and undisguised manners. A list of authors also is appended, of which, it is said, 'Ireland can boast:'—but 'we enter into no invidious comparisons; it is our sincere wish to conciliate both countries.'

We have thus attempted to give some idea of the contents of this volume, which we allow to be highly amusing, as a *mélange* of anecdote and little novels; but, as a defence of the Irish from the common imputation, we cannot help thinking it most unsuccessful. We expected, and had a right to expect, that persons who had resided so long in Ireland (the case with our authors) should have produced some genuine, authentic, and natural specimens of the Irish bull, and not have been obliged to resort to the inadmissible evidence of vulgar English jest-books. The English sneerer might have produced such, but he might at the same time have been asked for proofs. Here, this mode of trial is defeated by advancing fiction against fiction, which can never bring any point to a fair issue: and what is yet more unfortunate, this same fiction, this disposable force, is made at last to turn directly in favour of the enemy. If this be not a *practical bull*, we have read chap. IX. (On Practical Bulls) to no purpose.

ART. XII.—*Εἰς Θεός, ἢς Μόνος*; or an Attempt to shew how far the philosophical Notion of a Plurality of Worlds is consistent, or not so, with the Language of the Holy Scriptures. By the Rev. Edward Naves, A. M. &c. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Rivingtons.

TO believe in the motion of the earth, or to suppose that the various bodies in the expanse of heaven were formed for any other purpose than the accommodation of the inhabitants of this planet, was formerly a grievous heresy; and Galileo expiated his offence in the dungeons of the Inquisi-

tion. A more liberal spirit has, however, been adopted for the last two centuries; and we are permitted to expatiate on the glories of the universe without being suspected of violating the principles of religion. The discoveries which have successively been made from Galileo to Herschel compel us to relinquish the idea that the heavenly bodies are all created for the use of man; and the multitudes of systems detected lead to much higher opinions of the greatness of their Maker. A natural inquiry hence arises, for what purposes are they then created? Are they the habitations of animated and rational beings? Is there any analogy between them, in this respect, and our own planet? The inquiry is, at least, harmless; but our present limited knowledge, and perhaps faculties, do not permit the gratification of such curiosity. They are too far removed from us, indeed, to allow of any insight into their structure, and much less to give us an opportunity of discovering any works of art, whence we might infer the existence of the artist. We must look therefore to other quarters for information; and our author, with this view, applies to the Scriptures, and conceives that he has not only discovered an accurate answer to all such questions, but is hence become acquainted with a very material part of the Creator's economy in respect to the inhabitants of these remote spheres, and finds that the whole is connected with the history of our own sister planet.

To one part of our author's hypothesis we most fully assent, and readily allow that the doctrine of a plurality of worlds is not contradicted by any passage in the Scriptures; but, when he endeavours to extend our Saviour's mediation from the scene on which it was operated to the remotest regions of space, when he considers this not only as an institution between God and man, but more largely between the Creator and the created, exist wherever they may, we confess that our faith is staggered, and that we require very strong proofs before we embrace such an extraordinary doctrine—proofs, indeed, which we have not found in the work before us; while the multifarious learning introduced seems to be of little use in a question which must at last depend on the interpretation of a few passages in the Scriptures themselves, and which are not involved in any great degree of obscurity.

In an inquiry of this kind, the knowledge actually communicated by the sacred writers, on the subject of the world or worlds, is to be first examined; and here the very beginning of Genesis presents a passage which, in the present work, is made to bend to the opinion of a plurality of worlds; since the original Hebrew word, which is translated '*heaven*,' is itself in the plural number. We do not see, however, any

advantage obtained by supposing that the plural noun expresses a plurality of objects; for, whether *heaven* or *heavens* be meant by the term, it only signifies either the collection of those bodies apparently in the expanse, or the expanse itself; and, whatever the number of expanses, we are still not nearer the solution of our question, whether inhabitants are to be found in any of them. Other Hebrew words for *world* are examined; and of course the object is to give them the most extensive signification. Thus *אור* and *עלם* are pressed into the service, but, we fear, to very little purpose; for their obvious signification is *age*; and the Hebrew expression for the present and the future world leads only to two portions of duration, marked out by the dispensations of Moses and the Messiah.

The words of Scripture, in their lowest sense, being supposed, however, sufficient for the doctrine of the plurality, the question of their inhabitants must be determined by more decisive language; and Nehemiah, ix. 6, is brought as the first proof to this purpose. In this verse the *host of heaven* is said to worship God; and in the sentence before, God is said to have given life to them. Hence, as life and worship are attributed to the host of heaven, as well as things in the earth and the seas, it seems to be established, that there must be living and rational inhabitants in the higher worlds: but it may be here objected, that, as the words *לפניו את כלם* apply to the earth and seas, which are clearly inanimate, it is evident that they imply only, that whatever possesses life, either in earth or heaven, receives its life from God; and the worship of the host of heaven may be merely expressive of the obedience of inanimate orbs to his decrees. Our author translates the verse, 'Thou hast made the *worlds*, the universe of *worlds*, with all their inhabitants; the earth, and all things that are therein; the sea, and all that is therein; and thou fillest the whole with life, and the inhabitants of the *worlds* worship thee.' Many other passages are examined in the same manner. Thus it is said that 'the *heavens* shall praise thy wondrous works, O Lord:' in which the *heavens* are supposed to express *worlds*. But, even with these, many similar passages may be contrasted, which must be understood differently:—thus; 'Praise him sun and moon; praise him waters above the heavens:' in which expressions, inanimate beings are called upon to praise God; and consequently where worship and praise are ascribed to *hosts of heaven*, or *heavens*, or *worlds*, we cannot conclude decisively that any thing more is meant than the ascription of honour, generally, from all creation to the Creator.

From the Old Testament we are conducted to the New;

and the phrase, 'the kingdom of heaven,' is also made very extensive indeed—referring, not to the reign of Christ only over the human race, but to his reign over all the worlds. Yet if from the word *heaven* there a spiritual reign only be intended, our author's hypothesis falls to the ground. In the parable of the tares, since the good seed is the son of man, and the field the world, if the *world* can be taken in the extensive signification of *universe*, then its redemption by Christ must be acknowledged to have been established by an unerring judge: but this is too weak a proof for such an important fact. The same may be observed of other passages where the term *world* is used. The reasoning from the expression is just.

'The sacrifice of the body and blood of Christ was the price paid for the redemption of the sins of the whole world. Here, therefore, where our blessed Lord personally offered up this great atonement, it was reasonable to expect he would require some sensible commemoration. Upon this earth his body was bruised, and his blood was shed: if there are other worlds in the universe, it is impossible for us to know how it may have pleased God to notify to them the sacrifice of the body and blood of Christ; though we have every reason to conclude, that, let the universe be peopled as it may, this sacrifice can have been but "once offered for the sins of the whole world." Thus much, however, the words before us seem manifestly to imply; first, that, with regard to ourselves, the sacramental commemoration of the death of Christ is indispensably required of us, though it shall only be rendered efficacious through the spirit that quickeneth: secondly, that if it should have pleased God, only to notify to other worlds the fact of an atonement, they may still equally have life through the Spirit, and by the efficacy of God's word, revealed and manifested to them in some other way. Many things, therefore, concerning the atonement may exclusively apply to us, who particularly dwell where God was visibly manifest in the flesh; though there can be no doubt, but that this one sacrifice may have been as effectually made known to all the other worlds, and the benefits of it rendered as applicable to their inhabitants, as the only means of grace, provided by the Almighty, for his frail and sinful creatures.' P. 267.

But the strong argument against the ingenious conjectures of our author is founded on the general tenor of the Scriptures. They open with the creation of all things, but leave, from the very commencement, the concerns of other worlds to relate what took place on our own. Few things are recorded; and the chief event is the disobedience of the first man, with an obscure promise of a mediator. This mediator, in due time, made his appearance; and that appearance was necessarily connected with the disobedience of Adam. Let it be allowed that the higher worlds are filled with inhabitants: still what connexion could there be between their lives and that of Adam? and, if his disobedience did not reach to

them, neither can the obedience of our Saviour have an effect on their mode of existence. It is, however, sufficient that our author has clearly proved that the general tenor of Scripture is not adverse to the opinion, that there may be myriads of beings in unnumbered worlds employed in singing the praises of their Creator. Still the mode of their existence, the degree of their powers, are secrets hidden from us; and whether they stand in need of mediation, we need not inquire: but it is reasonable to believe, that, as there is so great a diversity in the inanimate works of God, there may be also as great a variety in his dispensations.

ART. XIII.—*Letters addressed to a Young Man, on his first Entrance into Life, and adapted to the peculiar Circumstances of the present Times.* By Mrs. West. 3 Vols. 12mo. 16s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

THESE Letters were originally addressed, by a judicious and tender mother, to a son entering into life. In an improved and enlarged form, they are now offered to the public. This change, though it lessens the interest they would inspire, renders them more useful. We lose the little characteristic traits which would connect us with the object of her anxious care, and we meet with instructions more general than could be adapted to a young man in the middle stage of life. We consider, however, these Letters as truly valuable, and would strongly recommend them to the attention of our younger friends. They are adapted to any period between the age of fifteen and twenty.

What we regard as of great importance, and what renders the present Letters still more valuable, is the sound judgement that pervades the religious and historical remarks. Equally distant from exaggerated praise and indiscriminate censure, Mrs. West duly appreciates the characters and manners of our ancestors; and can find, in the pride of the feudal lord and the luxury of the lazy abbot, qualities which could soften the wants of the poor and the distress of the afflicted. Her religious sentiments are equally rational and just. We shall select a specimen of our author's cool judgement.

‘ I have ever warned you, my dear child, against the illiberality of general reproach: and the design in these instances of abuse is so nefarious, that contempt seems too cold a censure of such pitiful endeavours to acquire fame and emolument, by increasing the delirium which induces people to hate what is high, and to despise what is old. I would advise you to read with qualifying considerations what even our histories tell us of the depravity of the Roman-catholic clergy prior

to the Reformation. The narratives which will fall under your eye are detailed by protestants; and when we consider how oppressive the hierarchy of the church of Rome was, and how much the political conduct of its sons had exasperated the minds of the people, we can scarcely wonder, that, when those people came to discover by what a fraudulent system they had been oppressed, their resentment should not be wholly confined to detecting the real guilt and folly of popery, but should frequently burst out in invectives against its ministers, which were too general to be strictly just. Most of the first reformers were men of great sincerity and austere manners; their passions, which seem to have been naturally strong, were irritated by cruel, unjust oppression, and heightened by that holy zeal for divine truth, which prompted them to brave danger and death in its defence. Allowing for the imperfections incident to human nature, we must admit, that the portraits which Luther and others exhibit of their opponents and persecutors are in danger of being overcharged.

‘ In these more tranquil times, the reformed religion appeals to the oracles of God in proof of its pre-eminence, not to the depravity of the Roman-catholic clergy.

‘ Do not, however, think me an apologist for the crimes that have been clearly proved against the religious of those times. I shudder at the dreadful recital; but, when we consider what a numerous body they then were, I think candour obliges us to refrain from stigmatizing them with universal odium. The doctrine which I would enforce is, that as people who have the least temptations to vice are generally most virtuous, and as those who know a little of their duty are more likely to practise it than those who are totally ignorant; so the recluse life of the monk, and the small share of learning which he possessed, were likely to make him a better man than those who were engaged in the scenes of contention which England then exhibited, and who knew nothing but what they derived from their spiritual instructors. If the monastery often “cozen’d folly and shelter’d fraud,” a little reflection, and attention to historical facts, must convince you, that it still more frequently sheltered the unfortunate, and fed the hungry. What amiable pictures do travellers through thinly-peopled and distracted countries often give us, of the piety, benevolence, resignation, industry, and hospitality of some venerable fathers, whose recluse convent, pitched upon a lofty precipice, is respected by conflicting tribes, and preserves an aspect of security against danger and dismay! We should grow enamoured of the description, did not some absurd tale of wonder-working relics, or some species of imposition on the miserable ignorant natives who live near them, impress on our minds the offensive ideas of the spiritual tyranny and superstition of those who yet retain the only traces of civilized life which these wilds exhibit. And yet, on the whole, notwithstanding their legends and their contributions, these fathers are a blessing to those among whom they reside, teaching them the arts of life, and accumulating a fund out of their present abundance, to provide a store for their future wants.

‘ The situation of England, during the times that I am now speaking of, was very similar to that of the countries which are above described; and by a parity of reasoning I would infer, that, as human nature, under the same degree of civilization, generally presents the

same aspect, a few instances (for, when so numerous a body is implicated, many hundred instances are but few) of atrocious guilt, even supported by indisputable evidence, should not induce a candid mind to believe, that, generally speaking, the monastic orders were unlike what we now find them to be in similar situations and circumstances: at least the daubings of deistical fiction are no proof to the contrary. Scorning such substitutions of fact, let us consider them as men living in a very dark period, and let us not be so unjust as to try them by the light which we now possess. It would be uncandid to believe, that they wilfully supported popery while they thought it to be a most iniquitous perversion of divine truth. We have certain grounds for knowing, that they had not sufficient learning to detect its fallacy. They took the matter upon trust; and, with respect to the fraudulent miracles by which they imposed upon the people, we know, that a zeal without knowledge is always blind. The vitiated principles of the church justified the inventor of these tricks, who was at liberty to do evil if it were productive of future good. But, in most instances, the propagators of these pious frauds were rather credulous dupes, than ambitious impostors.' Vol. i. p. 127.

We have preferred a long extract to numerous quotations, which would at least present a mutilated figure. We mean it, however, as a specimen only, and would wish the reader to peruse the whole entire.

The second volume relates chiefly to religion; and we have said that our author's religious sentiments are just and rational. Perhaps the disquisition on the Articles is too extensive; and that which derives the authenticity of Revelation, from natural appearances, too short and unsatisfactory.

The third volume relates to manners, to general literature, and to the new philosophy. Mrs. West's opinions on these points merit our commendation. She will excuse us for differing from her respecting the '*conspiracy*' of the Encyclopedists against religion; and will admit, that we cannot *cordially* agree with her remarks on reviews and reviewers. If reading this article do not give a little pang of remorse for indiscriminate—we were going to add unjust—accusation, we shall think her heart more callous than we should, from her general productions, expect. We leave the whole, however, to her own feelings. Ours, we own, have been wounded; and we may add, in the words of the poet, that she has—

———— 'shot her arrows o'er the house,
And hurt her brother.'

ART. XIV.—*Travels in the United States of America: commencing in the Year 1793, and ending in 1797. With the Author's Journals of his two Voyages across the Atlantic. By William Priest. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

WE have been greatly amused with this little work, though we cannot promise our readers much additional information from the perusal. It is a miniature picture, or rather a painting of the Dutch school, where we find the more familiar traits, that a superior artist would have overlooked or despised. The author has examined more closely the features of the Americans and their country, than former authors, and has copied them with fidelity. We were entertained by the progressive history of the settler, the splenetic Indian, the accounts of the fisheries, &c.; but Mr. Priest has laid various authors under contribution, somewhat too unreasonably for the bulk of the work. We shall select a specimen in his own profession, that of a musician. It is a very entertaining one.

‘Prepared as I was to hear something extraordinary from these animals, I confess the first frog concert I heard in America was so much beyond any thing I could conceive of the powers of these musicians, that I was truly astonished. This performance was *al fresco*, and took place on the night of the 18th instant, in a large swamp, where there were at least ten thousand performers; and I really believe not two exactly in the same pitch, if the octave can possibly admit of so many divisions or shades of semitones. An Hibernian musician, who, like myself, was present for the first time at this concert of antimusic, exclaimed, “By Jasus, but they stop out of tune to a nicety!”

‘I have been since informed by an amateur, who resided many years in this country, and made this species of music his peculiar study, that on these occasions the treble is performed by the tree-frogs, the smallest and most beautiful species; they are always of the same colour as the bark of the tree they inhabit, and their note is not unlike the chirp of a cricket: the next in size are our counter tenors; they have a note resembling the setting of a saw. A still larger species sing tenor; and the under part is supported by the bull-frogs; which are as large as a man’s foot, and bellow out the bass in a tone as loud and sonorous as that of the animal from which they take their name.

‘To an Englishman lately arrived in this country there are other phenomena, equally curious; as fire-flies, night-hawks, &c.; but, above all, such tremendous peals of thunder and flashes of lightning, as can be conceived only by those who have been in southern latitudes.

‘I have often thought, if an enthusiastic cockney, of weak nerves, who had never been out of the sound of Bow bell, could suddenly be conveyed from his bed, in the middle of the night, and laid, fast asleep, in an American swamp, he would, on waking, fancy himself in the

infernal regions: his first sensation would be from the stings of a myriad of mosquitoes; waking with the smart, his ears would be assailed with the horrid noises of the frogs; on lifting up his eyes he would have a faint view of the night-hawks, flapping their ominous wings over his devoted head, visible only from the glimmering light of the fire-flies, which he would naturally conclude were sparks from the bottomless pit. Nothing would be wanting at this moment to complete the illusion, but one of those dreadful explosions of thunder and lightning, so extravagantly described by Lee, in *Œdipus*.’ p. 49.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

ART. 15.—*Guineas an unnecessary and expensive Incumbrance on Commerce; or, the Impolicy of repealing the Bank Restriction Bill considered. The second Edition. To which is added an Appendix, shewing the Influence that the Restriction Bill has upon our Foreign Exchange and Commerce. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1803.*

A strange paradox this!—Old rags better than gold!—So revolting a title-page will, we fear, discourage the reading of a very sensible, well-timed, and well-written pamphlet. That guineas are not necessary in commerce, is obvious from well-known fact, that, at the time when guineas were very plentiful, there were many commercial houses which transacted each its concerns, to the amount of more than a hundred thousand pounds a-year, without the appearance of a hundred guineas in their houses. That guineas are an incumbrance in a market, may seem just as good a remark, as that ploughs and waggons are an incumbrance in a farm-yard: but it is certain, that, if every payment in commerce were made in solid gold, the disagreeable effect of such a mode of transacting business would be severely felt and complained of. It is not in itself a matter of any consequence what is made the representative of labour or property, whether gold, silver, copper, shells, or paper; and, as long as there is a reciprocity of confidence, whatever boasts the easiest mode of interchange has the advantage. This confidence is the result of ‘approved national and individual honesty;’ and, while a nation is in possession of this most excellent character, the easiest mode of transacting business is unquestionably by paper. A very small quantity of metal will suffice for the ordinary occurrences of the day; and the nation will be a gainer by the mechanical employment of that metal, which was before circulated merely as the representative of property. These points are discussed with great strength of reasoning and perspicuity of language in

the work before us; and the whole is summed up in the following propositions, which, the more they are investigated, will the more forcibly lead us to disregard the general clamours against the use of paper-money.

' 1st. That public credit is not created or upheld by metallic money :—that specie is not a symbol of public credit ; and is a very expensive incumbrance on commerce.

' 2dly. That paper money is a convenient, nonexpensive, and most advantageous medium, through which public credit may be circulated, with as much security, as the nature of commerce and public credit can give.

' 3dly. That none of the calamities attributed by theorists to an increase of bank notes, have been realized :—nor are they to be feared as long as the grand foundation of public credit, namely, " honesty and industry," remain.

' 4thly. That a nation which possesses a public credit, capable of circulating its commodities through the medium of signs, which cost comparatively nothing to create and maintain them, enjoys an incalculable advantage over its rivals in commerce ; and by its trade in the precious metals, in an uncoined state, can arbitrate the exchange with foreign countries at pleasure.

' 5thly. That the abuses of paper credit are corrigible ; and being corrected, there can be no excess of paper money, because its quantum must be limited by the wants of the public.' P. 107.

Hence it is recommended, not only to continue the bank restriction-bill to the beginning of the next session, but to leave it for ever optional to the bank to pay in coin or not. On the general principle, with respect to paper-money, the writer's sentiments appear to be very tenable ; but whether this important advantage should be given to banking-companies, without an equivalent to government, is a question which admits of discussion. Paper-currency depends on confidence. Where there is so great a circulation, as in this country, between the government and almost every individual, as long as government will take paper in lieu of coin, it must retain its value ; but, as the real value of this paper rests with government, the stamping of this value seems to be its peculiar concern ; and as the effigies of the sovereign gave currency to the guineas, so the mark of government should appear in all paper-currency.

ART. 16.—*Bank Notes. A concise Statement of the Nature and Consequences of the Restriction of paying in Specie at the Bank of England: addressed to the Public in general; and respectfully recommended, in particular, to the serious Attention of the Members of the new Parliament. By a Merchant.* 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1802.

The writer contends very properly, that the argument against the payment of notes at the bank, from the nature of the exchange, is without foundation. But he feels himself at a loss to discover what possible utility can result from the bank's locking up a few millions of specie, more or less, in their chests. He may well, indeed, feel him-

self at a loss ; and a question naturally arises, Whether the chests of the bank of England do not resemble those of the celebrated bank of Amsterdam, and contain an equal quantity of gold, silver, and precious jewels. The writer does not seem to have investigated the general inquiry, in the preceding article, whether a great quantity of bullion, stamped with the king's image, be or be not desirable.

ART. 17.—*The Picture of Parliament; or, a History of the general Election of 1802. Containing the most remarkable Speeches delivered on the Hustings, or otherwise published; the Names of all the Candidates; the State of the Poll at the Close of each Election; the Number of Voters, and the Decisions of the House of Commons on the Right of Election, in each Borough. To which is added, an alphabetical List of the elected Members, serving as an Index to the Work.* 12mo. 5s. Boards. Griffiths. 1802.

In what sense the picture of the elections of members of parliament can be called a picture of parliament, it would be difficult perhaps for the editor of this useful little work to determine ; and, from the speeches of candidates for a seat in the house of commons, as well as the conduct of many of the constituents of such as are successful, very imperfect must be the sketch of the body which composes our legislature. How small a portion of the people exercise the right of choice, may be clearly seen in this work ; and the general sentiment of the electors and candidates, where a seat has been contested, is as well given, as in so short a compass could be expected. During the present parliament, it will be a useful book of reference ; and it is well calculated to convey necessary information to candidates at future elections. The work would have been rendered still more useful, if the names of the proprietors of boroughs had been inserted, and the leading interests in towns and counties had been mentioned.

RELIGION.

ART. 18.—*A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of Armthorpe, Yorkshire, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By John Whitehouse, Rector of Armthorpe, &c.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davics. 1802.

This sermon does credit to the press at Doncaster. From the type, the paper, and the margin, we imagined it to have been printed by order of the house of lords, or, at least, the lord-mayor and common-council of the city of London ; nor do its contents differ much, in style and matter, from some which we have seen introduced by such authority. We read of the ' romantic schemes of republicans and levellers,' and a description of the late war, which, however it may be allowed to be true in this island, will not meet with equal approbation on the continent.

' The aim of the adversary was aggrandisement, increase of territory, and the erection of a new form of government upon the ruin of

all others, which was to be the admiration and envy of the world. With us, the object in view was the preservation of our present constitution, of our laws and liberties; on one side, it was a war of dominion and conquest; on the other, of security and defence.' p. 5.

Philosophy comes in for its share.

'The principles of the new philosophy were therefore to be substituted in the room of Christianity. The speculations of reclude visionaries and metaphysicians were to be adopted and acted upon, as the best means of diffusing more widely general happiness, and of advancing the public good. That gradual amelioration in political society, which can only be the work of time, was discarded, and the experience of ages treated with derision.' p. 6.

This is the vulgar mode of treating the subject, not considering that the head of this new philosophy, Voltaire, so far from being a recluse, lived in the midst of the great world, and was the companion and correspondent of kings and princes. The termination of war is said to have been 'repeatedly attempted by our government, and equitable terms proposed of mutual concession and accommodation, but which were as often rejected with haughtiness and disdain.' But were not terms of peace proposed by France, which were treated, in this country, with similar haughtiness and disdain? After discussing the question of war, the nature of our constitution becomes a subject of panegyric; and, after much extraneous matter, we are at length brought to what ought to be the main point in every Christian's sermon of this description—the government of God manifested in all events of life; and we are encouraged to look up to him, at all times, for support. We are exhorted, also, to pray for the continuance of 'our free monarchy and pure religion.' Now, if the village or town of Armthorpe in Yorkshire be like most of the villages and towns with which we are acquainted, we will venture to say, that not one in ten could understand the language or subject of this discourse; and the majority, we think, had therefore the advantage, since they might return to their homes, to enjoy their own reflexions on the return of peace, uninfected with a vast sarrago of political speculations. A good criterion of a sermon, on such an occasion as this, might be drawn from the question, Would it give offence to any Christian community in the world? and is it impossible to compose a sermon on peace, which might be received with equal satisfaction by Christians in this island and on the continent?

ART. 19.—*The Advantages of diffused Knowledge. A Sermon, preached at Scarborough, August 8; and at Kingston upon Hull, December 5, 1802, for the Benefit of two Charity-Schools, instituted at those respective Places for the Education of the Children of the Poor. By Francis Wrangham, M.A. 4to. 1s. 6d. Mawman. 1803.*

This sermon is, with great propriety, dedicated to the learned society of Trinity-college—for its contents are scarcely intelligible to the majority of a congregation at Kingston-upon-Hull. The object of the discourse is to prove that the diffusion of knowledge among the lower

classes will not be injurious to society. The objections of the bigot and the skeptic are repelled. 'The autocrats of Turkey and of Russia, the pontiffs of Rome and the lāmas of Thibet, the savage idolaters of of Brahma and Mexitli, the savage *auto da fés* of the Inquisition, the Pierian spring, the Humes and the Voltaires, the Paines and the Volneys, the Plantagenets, the Hales, the Boyles, the Lockes, the Newtons, Eratostratus and Ephesus, the Nile, the Baltic, American gulfs, and the easternmost extremities of Asia, the Cooks and the Nelsons, the navy and the British standard,' all generously co-operate, in the present discourse, for the benefit of the poor children of the two charity-schools; and, if the people at Hull could keep their purses shut against such a display of eloquence and learning, the superintending of these schools must, in future, not apply to scholars to preach their charity-sermons.

ART. 20.—*Remarks on a Pamphlet by Thomas Kipling, D. D. Dean of Peterborough, entitled 'The Articles of the Church of England proved not to be Calvinistic.' By Academicus. 8vo. 1s. Mawman. 1802.*

The virulence of Dr. Kipling's pamphlet was calculated to injure, rather than support, the cause which he undertook to defend; and it has excited an antagonist of better temper and greater powers of reasoning. The contest, indeed, is of too insignificant a nature to engage the attention of the public; and to reconcile or contrast the thirty-nine articles with the writings of Calvin, is a task for which few people of the present day will find either inclination or leisure. The simple and plain question is—Can the articles be maintained, or can they not, on the foundation of the Holy Scriptures? the support of, or opposition to, them, by such an abusive bigot as Calvin, being in itself of no importance. Academicus has indicated several points, in which his adversary, by opposing Calvin, has opposed the Scriptures; and he is advised, in case of another address to the public, to attend to the following necessary particulars:—

'That to charge opponents with holding opinions which they expressly disavow, is a violation of the established rules of literary controversy;—that to revile their characters has no tendency either to convince or to conciliate them;—that to attribute their sentiments or actions to mental derangement is not consistent with humanity or common decency;—and that it is the extreme of rashness to stigmatize their doctrines as blasphemous, without first enquiring whether they are not expressly affirmed in the word of God.' p. 32.

ART. 21.—*Christian Benevolence enforced; in a Sermon preached in the Parish Church of St. Martin, Leicester, on Sunday, October 30, 1802. By Edward Thomas Vaughan, M. A. &c. For the Benefit of a Female Asylum, lately established in that Town. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

'Many persons in the town and neighbourhood of Leicester, commiserating the case of poor girls, (who, being trained up in ignorance and idleness, and exposed in early life to the contagion of bad examples, are unfitted for any useful office in society, and often fall a prey to seduction and prostitution) have opened an asylum for them. The de-

sign is to receive such, above the age of twelve years, as appear to be objects of compassion, to preserve them from those evils to which they are peculiarly liable, to instil into their minds the principles of morality and religion, and to inure them to habits of industry and cheerful obedience, by instructing and employing them in every kind of household work, sewing, getting up linen, &c. which may qualify them to become good servants, or to earn their support in a reputable manner. A house has been prepared for the purpose, in which twelve girls are received, and placed under the care of an intelligent and experienced matron, subject to the entire direction and control of the subscribers.*
P. 5.

This benevolent design required, we are sorry to say, the aid of a sermon; and the charitably-disposed will contribute, in some degree, to forward a useful institution, by purchasing this discourse.

ART. 22.—*A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of Walsall, in the County of Stafford; at the Archdeacon's Visitation, August 12, 1802. By the Reverend Edward Cooper, Rector of Hamstall Ridware, &c. Published by Desire of the Archdeacon, and the Clergy. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

A judicious discourse on the duty of the clergy, to be attentive to the doctrine of the church on justification by faith alone; and to beware of those errors against which the articles on that subject was particularly framed.

ART. 23.—*Death by Sin, but Eternal Life by Jesus Christ, exemplified; in the Substance of two Discourses, delivered August 22, 1802, at Back Street Meeting-House, Horse-ly-Down. By Henry Hunt. 8vo. 1s. No Bookseller's Name. 1802.*

The subject is glorious: the sentiments are frequently just and good: the style is always, and the matter sometimes, adapted merely to a methodist meeting.

ART. 24.—*Misericordia; or Compassion to the Sorrows of the Heart. By Robert Hawker, D.D. &c. 12mo. 1s. Williams. 1802.*

The Misericordia is an excellent institution, at Plymouth, for the relief of distressed strangers. After removing their corporeal wants, their spiritual necessities are considered; and the following addresses are drawn up, with the view of making them Christians of that denomination which is generally termed *methodistical*.

ART. 25.—*Illustrations of Scriptural Characters: from the four Gospels. By the Rev. R. Polwhele. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Cobbett and Morgan. 1802.*

The object of this work is to urge the attention of readers to those characters which infidelity treats with great caprice and wantonness. By placing them in a true point of view, it is hoped that those who

have been deluded by misrepresentation will cultivate a better acquaintance with the histories referred to. The illustrations are well drawn, and cannot fail to be useful to young people.

ART. 26.—*The unrivalled Felicity of the British Empire. A Sermon preached at Salters' Hall, November 7th, 1802, at the Commemoration of our great national Deliverances, annually observed in that Place. By the Reverend James Stewen. Published at the Request of some of the Author's Friends. 8vo. 1s. Ogle. 1802.*

This happiness is proved by a comparison between our own country and the Jewish state. The natural advantages, the civil liberties, the religious privileges, and the providential interpositions, are displayed, which have long been enjoyed by the inhabitants of this realm. We do not wish to detract an iota from such a panegyric: but some of its parts naturally force upon our recollection the Spartan adage, on the ease with which the praise of the Athenians may be celebrated at Athens.

AGRICULTURE.

ART. 27.—*Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. Selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Originally published in nine Volumes, abridged in two. 2 Vols. 8vo. 17s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.*

The nine volumes, originally published by the Bath and West-of-England Society, are, in this collection, brought within the shorter compass of two, 'not by a partial selection of particular papers, but by preserving the substance of every one, rejecting only such parts of each as are uninteresting.' We will not pretend to have compared these two with the former nine volumes, their prototypes; but, so far as our recollection assists us, the most important observations seem to be retained; and the present appears to be a valuable abridgement.

ART. 28.—*On the Improvement of poor Soils, read in the Holderness Agricultural Society, June 6, 1796, in Answer to the following Question; 'What is the best Method of cultivating and improving poor Soils, where Lime and Manure cannot be had?' With an Appendix and Notes. By J. Alderson, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Vernor and Hood.*

This is an ingenious little essay; but we cannot admit the author's doctrine in its whole extent. The necessity of a union of earths as vegetable food, because a union is necessary for fluxing by heat, will not admit of an argument. That fences render ground fertile, by obstructing the wind, and 'shaking' the electrical fluid from it, is also too fanciful; and that alders, rushes, and moss, produce iron, is not supported by the slightest evidence. We have reason to think that calces of iron injure the fertility of land, only when in excess. In mo-

derate proportions, they seem to add to it.—Some of our author's ideas, particularly respecting irrigation, are, however, ingenious and just.

ART. 29.—*A Lecture introductory to a Course of Lectures on the Theory and Practice of Agriculture, by a Society of practical Farmers: delivered at the Agricultural Institution, Spring Gardens, on Tuesday, February 8, 1803.* 4to. 3s. 6d. White.

This institution is not designed to rival or interfere with other agricultural societies, or with those of which agriculture is one object. The authors speak, with respect, of those patriotic characters to which the science is so much indebted. They think, however, perhaps with reason, that *visd voce* communications may be more impressive and useful; and they mean, if suitably encouraged, to establish a *dépôt* for the exhibition and communication of the various implements and mechanical improvements in the practice of agricultural operations, with a library comprising every valuable publication on the subject.—The introduction is clear, comprehensive, and judicious.

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 30.—*A popular View of the Structure and Economy of the Human Body: interspersed with Reflections, moral, practical, and miscellaneous; including modern Discoveries, and designed for general Information and Improvement. To which is annexed, an Explanation of Difficult Terms.* By John Feltham. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Ginger. 1803.

We are so often embarrassed by the half-learned pretender, that we are, perhaps, not the most impartial critics of 'popular' works. This, before us, though far too diffuse, is, however, interesting, by the very happy manner in which the descriptions are conveyed. Yet there are too many errors, owing to the extreme complaisance of the author, who trusts, implicitly, every writer who speaks with confidence, and has been popular before this publication commenced.

The frontispice is attractive, though very incorrect in point of drawing; and we do not wonder at the attention of the lady, when we perceive her contemplating the human heart. The instructor has his hand on his heart, but is unable to draw the lady from her study; and she, indeed, seems rather intent on some object more interesting, of which the heart is only a symbol. While we speak of this organ, we may just mention a strange error on this subject, where the author describes the heart as *roving* through the breast, because, in some situations, its beat is not felt at the usual place. On the contrary, it is secured in its situation with peculiar care. Perhaps the picture may have been taken at this moment; and the anxiety in the lady's looks seems to show that she fears a heart *may* rove. The motto to this frontispice, however, baffles our scholarship: we shall transcribe it, as an exercise for the '*seventh form boys*:' we never went beyond the *sixth*.—'*Doctrinâ delectans animam increscit.*'

ART. 31.—*The Edinburgh New Dispensatory: containing, 1. The Elements of pharmaceutical Chemistry. 2. The Materia Medica; or, an Account of the different Substances employed in Medicine. 3. The pharmaceutical Preparations and medicinal Compositions of the latest Editions of the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Robinsons.*

While we in vain wait for a pharmaceutical treatise, equally interesting and co-extensive with the later improvements in chemistry, we announce this last edition of the *Edinburgh New Dispensatory*, not essentially differing from that of 1794. Another Dispensatory, from the same college, is also soon expected; and we may then look for another edition of the present work. Great bodies, however, move with a dignity inconsistent with rapid progress: they threaten long before they strike.

But when we speak of a pharmaceutical treatise, we suspect that we are liable to be misunderstood. What is called *pharmacy* in the present volume, is a body of doctrines calculated for the operator, and the general principles of the subject. The real meaning of the word is the doctrine of the effects of different menstrua on various bodies, so far as they adapt them for medical use, and the changes produced on them, as *medicines*, by the different processes. This is a work of which we have no example in our language, except so far as approaches are made to it in the short imperfect notes added to each process. With such materials in our hands, we trust we shall not be long without an able volume upon this subject.

ART. 32.—*Practical Information on the malignant Scarlet Fever and Sore-throat. In which a new Mode of Treatment is freely communicated. By E. Peart, M.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1802.*

In the preface, Dr. Peart enlarges a little on different medical theories, particularly those of Dr. Cullen, Dr. Darwin, and Dr. Brown. He finds all somewhat embarrassed with difficulties, and, in general, unsatisfactory. The principal information contained in this little work is an effectual remedy for the scarlatina and malignant sore-throat. It consists of a drachm of volatile alkali in two ounces and half of water: the dose, two tea-spoonfuls—the twentieth part of alkali; *viz.* three grains. On the efficacy of this medicine we shall make no remarks. It may be observed, that it was a peculiar epidemic, and the medicine was at first given towards its decline, when medicine is sometimes more effectual. It continued, however, to succeed; and the world is greatly indebted to Dr. Peart for his communication. The author enlarges, with some humour, on the chemical reasoning which the fact will excite, to account for the success of the medicine: but this, as well as the actions of oxygenated remedies, will still remain uncertain. We may, however, ask the author, whether one circumstance may not be properly taken into consideration; *viz.* the comparative facility with which the oxygen may be separated from the different substances, in combination with which it is exhibited.

ART. 33.—*An Account of the Discovery and Operation of a new Medicine for Gout.* 8vo. 4s. sewed. Johnson.

We are not fond of specifics; nor do we implicitly trust to remedies kept as secrets. Yet the gout is a disorder, notwithstanding its numerous martyrs, so little understood even at this time, that we cannot say a cure will be impossible. We are, however, strongly inclined still to doubt, especially as some trials which we have witnessed, though not steady or sufficiently continued, have not supported the pretensions here brought forward.

The present medicine does not, however, rank with quack *arcana*. One physician, Dr. Beddoes, knows the fruit from which it is prepared—for the remedy is a vegetable, and uncompounded. Others are entrusted with it; and men of science, in whose hands it has been placed, speak of it with commendation. The author, too, wishes only to establish its utility, and is then willing to resign the secret, on receiving a proper reward. Should it prove successful, he deserves a very considerable one.

COW-POX.

ART. 34.—*A Treatise on the Cow-Pox; containing an Enumeration of the principal Facts in the History of that Disease; the Method of communicating the Infection by Inoculation; and the Means of distinguishing between the genuine and spurious Cow-Pox. Illustrated by Plates.* By George Bell, Surgeon. 12mo. 3s. Bound. Longman and Rees. 1802.

This is a very perspicuous and judicious account of what is hitherto known on the subject of the cow-pox. Mr. G. Bell, the son of Mr. Benjamin Bell of Edinburgh, engages at some length in the subject, and trusts, perhaps a little too indiscriminately, what his predecessors have advanced. We chiefly allude to Dr. Loe's Experiments on the Effects of the Matter of the Grease producing the Cow-pox, and what has been called the 'spurious disease.' On the former, we have sufficiently enlarged; and on the latter subject we would only remark, that we wish the language to be altered. It is either the cow-pox, or not: the distinction should be accurately attended to, and, as our author remarks, the vaccine pustule observed daily. If it be not the vaccina in every period, with its progressive regular changes, it is nothing. The same has been noticed of small-pox, and does not militate against the former rather than the latter disease.

ART. 35.—*Practical Observations on Vaccination: or Inoculation for the Cow-Pock.* By John Redman Coxe, M. D. &c. Embellished with a coloured Engraving, representing a comparative View of the various Stages of the Vaccine and Small-Pox. 8vo. 4s. Philadelphia. 1802.

This is the first work on vaccina that we have seen from the new world. The disease appears there nearly as in Europe; but we think the fever seems a little longer, and sometimes more severe. Dr. Coxe considers the subject with great propriety, though perhaps with a little too much prolixity and minuteness of remark. His observations, however, are judicious and instructive.

EDUCATION.

ART. 36.—*Juvenile Biography: or, Lives of celebrated Children. Inculcating Virtue by eminent Examples from real Life. To which are added Moral Reflections, addressed to the Youth of both Sexes. By Mr. Josse, Professor of the Spanish and French Languages.* 12mo. 6s. sewed. Dulau.

The number of wonderful children in France exceeds very much what we meet with in England, where early years are still regarded as adapted more for air and exercise than sedentary occupations. Locke and Newton are said not to have displayed any extraordinary talents till they had passed their twelfth year; and, what is learned before seven years of age by way of study, is not likely to be of long duration. At the same time, if we do not wish parents to attempt to make prodigies of their children too soon in life, their education is not to be neglected; and this work will show what the human mind is capable of producing in the first stage of its existence. It is not so much to be read by the young as by their parents, to whom it will afford a great fund of amusement.

ART. 37.—*The Parlour Teacher.* 12mo. 6d. Darton and Harvey.

ART. 38.—*The Post Boy.* 12mo. 6d. Darton and Harvey.

Two little A B C books, with suitable engravings.

ART. 39.—*Parental Education; or, Domestic Lessons: a Miscellany, intended for Youth. By E. A. Kendal, Esq.* 12mo. 4s. Bound. Hurst. 1803.

We agree with our author in his ideas of the superior abilities displayed in modern books of amusement, for the young, over those of former years. Yet a great many of these enlightened volumes ought to be discountenanced, if not despised, by all those who profess the religion established in this kingdom. Their writers have too much philosophy to mention the Christian system. What a debt would they have laid on their fellow-citizens, if, while they rejected the superstition of earlier authors in this class, and supplied its place with useful knowledge, they had retained that divine institution, compared with which their own imaginations are but the dream of a sick brain! Mr. Kendal speaks very decorously of *truth* and *virtue*; so did the stoics: but he talks no more than they did of the God of Christians. As their histories are, both of them, pretty ancient, we see not why one of them should be supposed to describe a real person, more than the other: how then comes it to pass, that, in a chapter 'On the Forgiveness of Injuries,' great mention is made of Dion of Syracuse, and not a word said of the vastly superior example of Jesus of Nazareth?

ART. 40.—*A Key to Chambaud's Exercises: being a correct Translation of the various Exercises contained in that Book. By E. J. Voisin.* 12mo. 3s. Bound. Longman and Rees. 1805.

How the translator can call this 'A Key to Chambaud,' we cannot

conceive. A man who should see the books together, without knowing the order of the time in which they were printed, might as well term the volume 'A Key to M. Voisin.' All that we see in this production convinces us that it is worse than useless; for it will either enable an unqualified person to pretend to teach by Chambaud's Exercises, or it will enable an idle boy to defeat the intentions of a good master.

ART. 41.—*Elements of French Grammar, more especially designed for the Use of the Gentlemen Cadets of the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. By Lewis Catty. 12mo. 3s. Bound. Johnson. 1802.*

Of Mr. Catty's abilities, as a teacher, we certainly ought to think highly, because he is retained in that capacity at the Woolwich Academy: but we see no signs of superiority in his grammar over those that are already in use. In our opinion, Chambaud's was the best division of the tenses, because the most simple. Mr. Catty's indicative mode has a *present*, a *preter-imperfect*, two *preterites*, one *ANTERIOR*, one *preter-pluperfect*, two *futures*, and two *conditionals*. We do not think that the reduction of the parts of speech to eight, by throwing the noun and adnoun, the verb and participle together, is an equivalent for this excessive prolixity.

ART. 42.—*Maternal Instruction, or, Family Conversations, on moral and entertaining Subjects, interspersed with History, Biography, and original Stories. Designed for the Perusal of Youth. By Elizabeth Helme. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Rees.*

Mrs. Helme has, in this work, made a very pleasing addition to the juvenile library. The conversations are desultory, but selected with much judgement. Every child must be amused by reading them; and to be improved, we think, he cannot fail.

POETRY.

ART. 43.—*The Infidel and Christian Philosophers: or, the last Hours of Voltaire and Addison contrasted. A Poem. 4to. 1s. Vernor and Hood. 1802.*

' See where, encircled by his atheist train,
A wretched prey to agonizing pain,
Upon his death-bed lies, in deep despair,
The celebrated, witty, gay Voltaire!
A man to each succeeding sceptic dear;
Whose arts they follow, and whose name reverse!
He who first gave their darling project birth,
Of rooting out religion from the earth;
And, vain of praise by fawning flatterers giv'n,
Dar'd hurl defiance in the face of Heav'n.
With specious talents curs'd, in quest of fame,
Lur'd by th' attraction of a guilty name,
He those endowments 'gainst the donor turn'd;
And with infuriate zeal and ardour burn'd,

Each vestige of the Gospel to efface,
 And crush the Saviour of the human race.
 Long time, a stranger to remorse or fear,
 He ran uncheck'd his blasphemous career;
 Beyond conception saw his schemes succeed,
 And inly triumph'd in the impious deed.
 Ev'n then, when, near the summit of desire,
 He fear'd with joy excessive to expire,
 Grown grey with age, and harden'd in his crimes,
 (Example terrible to future times!)
 Sudden he sinks beneath th' avenging rod
 Of a much-injur'd long-forbearing God.
 The season destin'd for probation fled,
 Condemn'd to feel ere number'd with the dead,
 (Immers'd in anguish, hopeless of a cure)
 Some portion of those pains the damn'd endure.' P. 8.

These are tolerable rhymes. The author is, indeed, a better rhymist than reasoner; for he implicitly believes the Jesuitical tales of the abbé Barruel. We are always sorry to see a good cause defended by weak arguments. What could the gentleman, who proves the advantages of Christianity by the fears of the delirious Voltaire and the resignation of Addison, reply, if some Scotch materialist were to rest a defence of atheism upon the calmness of Hume at his death?

ART. 44.—*Poems by the late Mrs. Charles Mathews. Dedicated, by Permission, to the Right Hon. the Countess Fitzwilliam. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.*

'How sweet among the woodland scenes to rove,
 When dew-gem'd trees their budding charms display,
 And listen to the thrilling voice of love,
 That floats melodious on the breath of May.
 To mark the bursting germ, the infant flow'r,
 Catch the health-giving breeze of early dawn,
 Mark the bright tints of morn's empurpled hour,
 And stray delighted o'er the spangled lawn.
 O! these are scenes that wake th' approving thought,
 That bid reflection soar on eagle-wing!
 With conscious worth, with sense, and feeling fraught,
 All that e'er peace can give and mem'ry bring.
 Such were the joys, in life's fair morn I knew,
 When every thought was bliss, and every hope was new.' P. 9.

There are poems of considerable merit in this volume: but the authoress is now no more.

ART. 45.—*Floribelle; or, the Tale of the Foreste, a Ballad. In four Parts. In Imitation of the ancient Style. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kirby. 1803.*

The author of these rhymes imitates our old ballads, by the frequent use of repetitions, and by adding a final *e* to most of his words. The story is clumsily contrived, and badly versified.

'The ladye scream'd—the youth was fainte—
 ———Who can the sequel telle?
 'Tis needlesse for the Muse to painte,—
 ———Indeede she cannot welle.' P. 7.

ART. 46.—*Rhyme and Reason; short and original Poems.* 8vo.
 4s. Boards. Blacks and Parry. 1803.

'Lest the ungente reader should think the author of the following poems too arrogant in assuming a claim to "reason" in his rhymes, it may be necessary to state the writer's own ideas on the subject:— By annexing the term *reason*, he presumes to say, that he has endeavoured to put some meaning into his verses; whether it be good, bad, or indifferent, is a question to be decided by the candid critic alone. The writer is not without hope that his gentle readers who are conversant with modern poetry (as it is termed most courteously) will thank him for his attempt to combine rhyme and reason, on the score of novelty. The author declares openly to critics of all descriptions, that he is not so courteous to himself as to think that his poems have the smallest claim to the title of poetry. With respect to the familiarity of his style, the author deems no apology necessary, as slipshod Muses, and other ladies *en deshabille*, or, in plain English, half-dressed, are at present the fashion or rage.' P. v.

These poems are the trifles of a man of talents.

'The Poetical Mistress.

'My Chloe has immortal charms
 Which time and death defy;
 Of ivory are both her arms,
 And a diamond is each eye:
 'Her hair of ebony is made,
 Each lock so strong and big,
 That not e'en fashion will persuade
 My nymph to wear a wig:
 'Her bosom, all so fair and round,
 Is made of alabaster;
 So no good reason can be found
 To say it will not last her.
 'The face of this enchanting maid
 Is one bright damask rose,
 And when it on her cheeks shall fade
 'Twill flourish on her nose!
 'For beauty equal and for fame,
 Her praise I'll still rehearse;
 Whose charms are lasting as my flame,
 And deathless as my verse.' P. 54.

'On Chloe's Reserve.

'Let Chloe put on her imperious frown;
 Or, what is worse, resume her treacherous smiles,

I care not, I am posting up to town,
 Saddle my horse—'tis only fifty miles.
 ' Some swains, indeed, would hang themselves on willows,
 Or plunge their noddles into streams so cold ;
 I hate fresh water and salt water billows—
 Pho, these are boyish tricks, and I'm too old !
 ' Chloe would wed me did she think I had wealth—
 Chloe is deep, perhaps, but I am deeper ;
 I'll walk the Mall, and woo some lass by stealth,
 And buy as pure good love, and so much cheaper !' P. 80.

' To my Family Harpsichord.
 ' Sweet emblem, well thy various notes pourtray
 The chequer'd cares of my domestic day,
 In the rough rumbling cadence of thy base
 My butcher's and my brewer's voice I trace:
 When shriller sounds arise upon mine ear
 My wife's melodious pipe I seem to hear ;
 When to her maids she speaks her sov'reign will,
 Or curtain lectures tell it plainer still,
 Those strains again—ah, no ! they higher soar—
 Some cordials, John ; and shut the nurs'ry door.
 Thus, with my duns, my children, and my wife,
 I play the treble and the bass of life :
 Blest instrument, thy notes and mine are one,
 Save your's have stops, and mine, alas ! have none !' P. 82.

This author evidently knows what a sonnet should be, and should not have classed poems of twelve and sixteen lines under that title. We may add, that, to abuse Peter Pindar, is not very decent in a man who has thought proper to imitate him.

ART. 47.—*Love: an Allegory. To which are added several Poems and Translations. By James Lawrence. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1802.*

A translation of this poem, Mr. Lawrence tells us, met with the most flattering success in Germany. We trust it is less likely to please in England. The world, it seems, was very virtuous and very happy, as long as it was governed by Religion, and as Religion remained on good terms with Love ; but its miseries began when Superstition introduced Chastity, and delivered Love into the custody of the jailor Hymen.

The translation of Mathison's beautiful ode is but poorly executed. This poet, indeed, has, of all the German writers, been the most unfortunate in his translator, except Goethe, whose Herman and Dorothea was utterly ruined by its execrable version. The ' Poet's Consolation' paraphrases a thought which has been expressed by Waller in his happiest manner. The best thing in the volume is this—

' As gay lord Edward in a lively freak
 Kissed antient Margaret, for the dame was kind,
 He found, although the rose had left her cheek,
 The thorn upon her chin remain behind.' P. 46.

DRAMA.

ART. 48.—*The Fall of Carthage. A Tragedy. First presented at the Theatre, Whitby. With Additions and Corrections. By William Watkins. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Law. 1802.*

This tragedy is upon a noble story. The blank-verse is tolerably constructed, and its faults only such as are common to all indifferent tragedies; but sins of omission are as deadly in poetry as in religion; and this drama must be condemned under the statute against mediocrity.

ART. 49.—*Joseph. A sacred Drama. By W. T. Procter. 8vo. 1s. 6d. No Bookseller's Name. 1802.*

Mr. Procter has unfortunately supposed, that to arrange ten syllables in a line is to write blank-verse.

‘ Call my steward to attend them. Faithful !

[Enter Faithful,

Go 'tend those weary'd trav'lers. They come from
Canaan's far distant clime : but not so far
As to 'scape th' universal famine—Ah !
No. It rages, by divine command, thro'
Many a fated country. Our's is the
Storehouse of supplies—the favour'd spot of
Heav'n's all fructifying smile—decreed, in
God's high council, the repository
Exhaustless, of provision bounteous,
Which he has made to save a-famish'd world
From starving ; and the craving appetite,
By pinching hunger ravenous made, to
Satisfy. See yonder, Faithful, they creep
With feeble step ; with difficulty my
Door they'll reach.' P. 8.

NOVELS.

ART. 50.—*Romance of the Pyrenees. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.*

Whatever has been invented to perplex, astonish, and terrify, sinks into a tame and insipid narrative, when compared with the descriptions before us. It is attempted, however, in the last volume, to reduce the whole to probability, to easy contrivances, and artificial means of exciting terror. The management we cannot highly approve ; the first part is too much heightened ; and it fails of its effect, by the too strong working of the engine. Beyond a certain point, pain ceases, and agony is lost in stupefaction. In the concluding volume, the tale is again told to explain the contrivance, and it falls upon the sense. Numerous improbabilities also, which are not cleared, contribute to disgust us. On the whole, it is the work of no common artist. Much knowledge, in different departments of science, occasionally occurs ; but management, perhaps experience, is requisite to bring

his powers to their proper exertion, without which, the effect must necessarily fail.

ART. 51.—*Nothing New, a Novel, in which is drawn characteristic Sketches from modern and fashionable Life.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Booth. 1802.

'Ex pede Herculem.' — The language, through the whole, is equally incorrect, and the incidents most strange and improbable. They *may* be drawn from modern and fashionable life; but it is a life of which we have not the slightest idea.

ART. 52.—*Eccentric Philanthropy, a Novel.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Booth. 1802.

A scion from the German stock, and as stupid and improbable as any of those productions which we have hitherto imported from that country. The hero is at once a libertine and a man of honour—prime-minister to three or four monarchs, not in succession, but of different kingdoms—a natural philosopher, acting the conjurer—the man of science without study, of business without application. The work is decidedly a translation, and far from a correct one. We often catch the original word through the author's blunders.

ART. 53.—*Celina, or Tale of Mystery, by Ducray-DuRenil.* 4 Vols. 12mo. 16s. Boards. Lane. 1803.

The first two volumes of this work are professedly translated from the French novel which furnished Mr. Holcroft with his celebrated melo-drama, *The Tale of Mystery*. The last two are imitations only, and somewhat faint. On the whole, the work is highly interesting, though the villanous conduct of the Trequelins renders it, occasionally, painful; and we suspect that such tales of villany may sometimes suggest, rather than deter from crimes. The *denouement* is managed with peculiar dexterity.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 54.—*Part the First, of an Address to the Public, from the Society for the Suppression of Vice, instituted, in London, 1802. Setting forth, with a List of the Members, the Utility and Necessity of such an Institution, and its Claim to public Support.* 8vo. 2s. Spragg. 1803.

We have read this calm, persuasive, and dispassionate, Address with great satisfaction. The author's views are clear, judicious, and discriminated; and the whole plan merits very considerable commendation. We cannot doubt of its meeting with encouragement.

ART. 55.—*Fun for every Day in the Year, or Food for all Palates, a choice Collection of the best Jest and Witticisms.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Hurst.

It cannot be expected that this long bill of-fare will be found uni-

form and equal through the whole year: if, however, the food on some of the days be but dry and *maigre*, yet very frequently the dishes have a deal of *goût* and seasoning in them.

ART. 56.—*British Liberty; or, Sketches, critical and demonstrative, of the State of English Subjects. To which are annexed, summary Remarks on Revolution, High Treason, and Trial by Jury. Addressed to the People of England generally, and to the Soldiers of his Britannic Majesty's Regiments of Foot-Guards, &c. With an Appendix, containing an interesting Extract from a public Print, and brief Observations on the presumptive Existence of a dangerous Society. By Amicus Patriæ. 12mo. 6d. Neil. 1803.*

How Mr. Amicus Patriæ came to adopt the epithets of *critical* and *demonstrative* for his sketches, we know not; for certainly there is nothing in them examined with any sort of critical skill, nor any thing demonstrated that all the world did not know before. The author says that no country but our own can boast a Greenwich or a Chelsea-Hospital. So far as names go, he is right. We shall take no trouble to go to any other part of the continent to refute him, until he has *demonstrated* to us that 'the Hospital of Invalids' is not in existence at Paris.

'Ever vain and useless will be the attempts of disaffected persons, if there be any such now, to excite rebellion in this country. The immense majority of loyal, patriotic, and well affected people, content with the laws which protect them, will at any period declare themselves against all insurgents, in defence of their king, constitution, lives, and properties.' p. 15.

We did not think, on opening these Sketches, that the writer had sufficient discernment to make this obvious remark; but, as he has, it is a pity he did not save his money instead of spending it to print a book both ridiculous and unnecessary.

ART. 57.—*Gradus ad Cantabrigiam: or, a Dictionary of Terms, academical and colloquial, or Cant, which are used at the University of Cambridge. With a Variety of curious and entertaining Illustrations. 8vo. 3s. Richardson. 1803.*

In a fluctuating body like the university, the age of words is of a much shorter duration than in other places; and, useful as this *Gradus* may be, it cannot, at the utmost, serve nine years—that is to say, three generations of gownsmen. This will not displease the editor, who, in collecting materials for his future work, might insert a little more of the current wit of the university; unless, with the promotion of its celebrated epigrammatist to high magisterial dignity, that article ceases to be current, and is not admitted within the regions of Golgotha.

ART. 58.—*A Collection of Papers intended to promote an Institution for the Cure and Prevention of Infectious Fevers, in Newcastle and other populous Towns, together with the Communications of the most eminent Physicians, relative to the Safety and Importance of annexing Fever-Wards to the Newcastle and other Infirmarys. Parts I. and II. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Murray and Highley.*

This subject has often occurred to us, and the attempt has claimed our highest approbation. We are pleased to observe the unremitting attention paid to it, and wish this benevolent plan every success. The minute details prevent our enlarging further on it.

ART. 59.—*A Meteorological Journal for the Year 1802. By William Bent. 8vo. 2s. Bent.*

Mr. Bent continues his useful observations, and it will be advantageous to compare his observations with those of other meteorologists. In the year 1802, the greatest height of the barometer was, in January, *viz.* 30.66, and the least, 28.79 in November: the mean, 30.03. The range of the thermometer was from 79° to 26°: the mean 51.2. The mean heat of April 50.9. The hygrometer was from 69 to 35: the mean 54°. The rain only 15.12 inches, of which 3.64 fell in July, and only .23 in January.

ART. 60.—*A general introductory Discourse delivered Tuesday, Nov. 16, 1802, on the Objects, Advantages, and intended Plan of the new Institution for public Lectures on natural Philosophy, in Newcastle-upon-Tyne. By William Turner, one of the Secretaries to the Literary and Philosophical Society of Newcastle, and Lecturer in the new Institution. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1802.*

The introduction is, on the whole, judicious, and 'the advantages' well detailed; yet we think the plan too extensive for amateurs; and such only can be expected in a provincial town. A list of donations and subscriptions is annexed, which we wished to have seen more extensive.

** * In answer to numerous inquiries, we beg to inform our readers that the continuation of the Criticism on the Grenville Homer will be given in our next Number.*

APPENDIX

TO

THE THIRTY-SEVENTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

ART. I.—*Histoire des Mathématiques, &c.*

History of the Mathematics. By J. E. Montucla. (Continued from Vol. XXXVI, p. 494.)

THE invention and construction of logarithms having been treated in the first two volumes of this history, so far as they were brought towards perfection in the seventeenth century, M. Montucla, in the volume before us, describes the improvements that have been made in the course of the last or eighteenth century, by Sherwin, Gardiner, Lalande, Schulze, Vega, Hutton, Taylor, Callet, &c. Among many others, we here find the following curious article: ‘A particular anecdote, which we learn from the preface of Vega, is, that while in Europe the two works of Vlacq, the most complete in their kind, demanded, in consequence of their scarcity, a new edition, which no person dared to undertake, these two works were reprinted in China, and even in the Imperial palace, in Chinese characters, and under a title, which in Latin is to this import: *Magnus Canon Logarithmorum, tum pro Sinibus ac Tangentibus ad singula Deni secunda, tum pro Numeris absolutis ab Unitate ad 100,000. Typis Sinenfibus in Aula Pekinensi, Jussu Imperatoris (Kang-hi) excusus, 1721, in three folio volumes, Chinese paper.*’ Of this curious impression, M. Vega has seen a copy at Vienna; and, Montucla adds, we have elsewhere remarked that this emperor was a great admirer, both of the precision of Euclid’s demonstrations, and of the invention of logarithms; and, what perhaps could, at the same time, be said of no European prince, he calculated triangles with great facility.—Taylor’s Logarithms of Sines and Tangents, for every single second, are noticed with due respect. After which, a particular description of the contents of Callet’s beautiful and useful edition is

given; and next the author speaks, with extraordinary applause, of the complete and accurate collection of tables made in this country by Dr. Hutton, which the historian calls *un chef-d'œuvre en ce genre*; adding, that the history of trigonometry and of the invention of logarithms, as well as of the labours and ideas of its principal authors, is extremely curious and interesting; and, besides, brings us acquainted with a great many respectable men but little known on the continent, and who have written very excellent pieces on the mathematics, &c.—We have now, however, continues M. Montucla, to speak of a work still more considerable than any of those yet noticed; namely that undertaken, and in great part executed, under the direction of M. Prony, of the National Institute. This publication consists of the following particulars: 1st, A table of natural sines, calculated to twenty-one decimals, for every ten thousandth part (or each minute in the new division) of the quadrant, with five orders of differences. 2d, A like table for the natural tangents. 3d, A table of the logarithms of numbers, from one to twenty thousand, each to twelve decimals, with three orders of differences. 4th, A table of the logarithmic sines and tangents for each hundred-thousandth (or each second of the new division) of the quadrant, to twelve places of decimals, with three orders of differences. 5th, The logarithms of the ratios of arcs to their sines or tangents, for the first five centiemes (or new degrees) of the quadrant, to twelve decimals, with three orders of differences. 6th, A collection of astronomic tables adapted to the new graduation of the circle.

In the ensuing article the subject of logarithms is continued; exhibiting many new and curious considerations of the modern mathematicians, on the theory and calculation of logarithms; explaining the particular methods of constructing the logarithms by the principal authors, as, Newton, Gregory, Halley, Sharp, Speidell, Euler, &c. In this account we observe the omission of the method of Jones, which is the same in effect as Euler's; and another omission of Halley's antilogarithmic series, or the series which gives the natural number in terms of the logarithm.

Article XXXVII. contains some farther considerations on logarithms; particularly relating to the logarithms of negative quantities, with disputes, on that subject, among Leibnitz, Bernouilli, Euler, d'Alembert, and others.

Art. XXXVIII. enters on the calculation of probabilities and chances. There are few things in the mathematics in which the analytic invention shines more than in the calculation of probabilities. Indeed, if there were any subject that might evade mathematic investigation, it would seem to be that of chances. But what is too arduous for the human mind, assisted by the mathematic genius and the analytic art? This kind of

Prôteus, so difficult to fix, the mathematician has at length succeeded in chaining, and submitting to calculation. He has been able to measure the degrees of the probability of certain events; which has given rise to a new theory, perhaps the most useful and the most curious which his mind has produced. For it is of importance in the concerns of life, to know how to discover the specious allurements which the avarice of some men offers to others; either to avoid them ourselves, or to preserve others, who may not perceive them, from being thence imposed on: Even in the fairest and most equal games, it is of consequence for those who would thus amuse themselves, to understand, under different circumstances, how to distinguish the favourable cases, or the contrary, unless they would expose themselves to inevitable losses; and human prudence in this case is merely the art of estimating the probability of events, in order to choose and determine. The explanation of the theory here given by M. Montucla is a splendid example of the truth of these observations. The same subject, in its various branches, is continued through the three remaining articles of this analytic division of the history, in a very ample, clear, and satisfactory manner, with an application to economic and political purposes; such as the valuation of annuities, reversions, and expectancies; to the probability of the justice of judgements; to elections, assurances, &c.: in the progress of which, the author has occasion to notice the theories and methods of a variety of celebrated authors, as Pascal, Fermat, Wallis, Huygens, the Bernouillis, Monmort, Demoivre, Euler, Sauveur, Motte, Condorcet, Cramer, Fontaine, Beguelin, d'Alembert, Petty, Halley, Simpson, Lacroix, &c. &c.

Our mathematical historian next enters on the second book of this fifth part, which contains the progress of optics during the 18th century. This book is divided into sixteen articles or sections. In the first, the author takes a general view of the progress of that science in the century adverted to, and of the principal discoveries with which it has enriched us, relating to telescopes, microscopes, the heliostat, heliometer, panoscope, panorama, &c. Before entering on the details of these and many other interesting objects, he takes a view of the principal works on the science that have appeared in the course of the same epoch. Of these, the first noticed is Smith's Complete Treatise on Optics, which, notwithstanding its various translations into French, Dutch, German, &c. is described as very far from being a model of perfection or elegance. The other remaining works enumerated are those of Euler, of Courtivron, of Boscovich, and of Priestley, with the French and German translations of the same.

Article II. contains the algebraic determination of the foci of optic glasses, particularly by Halley, Ditton, Craige,

Guinée, Carré, and Wolf.—And article III. describes the hypotheses relating to the apparent place of objects seen by reflection or refraction; a question which yet remains undecided. We find here, conjointly introduced, the opinions of the ancients and the moderns on this point—of Alhazen, Vitellio, Tacquet, Aguilon, Barrow, Berkley, Smith, and Snell.—The fourth article discusses certain curious phenomena of direct optics or vision; such as the apparent approach or convergence of parallel rows or alleys; the apparent elevation of the horizon; the large apparent magnitude of the sun and moon near the horizon; an optic illusion which M. M., rejecting the well-known explanation given by Dr. Smith, inclines to ascribe to a great conjectured distance, occasioned by the interposing objects.

In the fifth article is given the history of the invention of the achromatic telescope; a very important article, and treated at great length, the historian entering pretty fully into the disputes that have been agitated concerning this invention, upon the ideas of Newton, Euler, Dollond, Klingenshiern, Clairaut, d'Alembert, and many other authors, who have contributed to the perfection either of the theory or the practice of these telescopes.

In the sixth article we are presented with a discourse on the different perfections of telescopes, on glasses cemented together, and on the manner of polishing glasses. This, and the five following articles, are entirely by the editor Lalande, who here commences the method of placing, at the head of the article, its particular title or contents; which is certainly a convenience. In this article are described the effects of glasses cemented together, the modes of cementing them, and inclosing between them transparent liquids, or a coating of mastic, melted by the action of fire, whether by the method of abbé Rochon, or of others; which last are found useful in obviating the effects of the irregularities in the surfaces, and of the colours; but which are, at the same time, liable to the inconvenience of soon spoiling, and requiring to be repaired or renewed. A new method of polishing glasses is here also described, from the French artist Antheaulme.—In the seventh article, which is very important, Lalande gives a short history of the telescope, properly so called, or reflectors, from the time of Newton and Hadley, through the hands of the principal makers or improvers, as Bradley, Molineux, Hawkesbee, Passement, Short, and Herschel especially, of whose labours and discoveries in the heavens he presents a clear and particular account, and who, it is stated, has made two hundred telescopes of seven feet long, one hundred and fifty of ten feet, and eighty of twenty feet, besides his very large one of forty feet, and four feet opening: his greatest success in observing, however, has been by means of a seven-foot tube, which magnifies 2000 times. It is here stated, with re-

ward to France, that the first consul Bonaparte has promised the astronomers of that country two thousand weight of platina, for the purpose of making a telescope of thirty-six French feet long, which will probably surpass every thing that has been hitherto constructed.

The next article is devoted to microscopes, and particularly the solar microscope; in which the author does justice to the principal persons who have interested themselves in their improvement, as Euler, Truss, Delatorre, Baker, Dellebarre, Smith, Barker, Martin, Liberkun, Adams, &c.—The ninth article treats of micrometers, the heliometer, and the prismatic micrometer of the abbé Rochon, made of Iceland crystal, which is well known to be endued with the singular property of a double refraction.—The next article comprises various reflecting instruments, useful in astronomy and navigation, for discovering the longitude, &c.; such as octants, sextants, whole circles, and the astrometer of Rochon. The first idea of these reflecting instruments, it appears, was derived from Dr. Hooke in 1664 or 1665. Sir Isaac Newton also proposed such an instrument; and a Mr. Godfrey, of Philadelphia in America, made one before Hadley's, though this latter was executed without the knowledge of the former; while other persons, it should seem, have entertained similar intentions and projects. The celebrated astronomer Mayer, of Göttingen, proposed the like combination of reflecting glasses for a whole circle, which has been completed and perfected by M. Borda of Paris, and is much used by the French, and apparently to much advantage; since, by multiplying the observations of the same object on several parts of the circle, and taking a medium among them all, the errors, both of the divisions of the instrument and of the observation, will be reduced to little or nothing.

Article XI. treats on the physical cause of the refraction, and diffraction, or inflexion, of the rays of light; in discussing which, the principal authors introduced are Newton, Mairan, Clairaut, Grimaldi, Miraldi, &c.—And the next article contains an account of the writings on photometry, or measuring of light, with the difference of heat in the rays. This is a very curious and interesting paper, and is treated by Montucla with much perspicuity. Philosophers had hitherto considered light only in regard to the direction of its rays, and its faculty of exciting in our organs of vision the perception or view of objects. They have not till lately made any attempts to calculate its intensity, although the different degrees of it are the source and the cause of many of the phænomena in physics. The researches which have been made on this subject, since the commencement of the eighteenth century, have given birth to a new part of optics, to which Lambert gave this additional name of *photometry*, and which is indeed not one of their least interesting branches.

Several philosophers have since made attempts to measure the different degrees of light; yet their success was but small, and their conclusions inaccurate, till Bouguer undertook the subject. From his experiments some curious results were derived: he determined that the light of the moon is but about the 300,000th part of that of the sun; that the light of the moon would be three times as great, if all the parts of her face were as luminous as the brightest parts of it: that the light of a bougie, at the distance of seventeen inches, is only the 11,664th part of the sun's light: that the sun's heat, when he is $19^{\circ} 16'$ above the horizon, is but two-thirds of his heat at $66^{\circ} 11'$ elevation; owing to the greater quantity of the atmosphere his rays must traverse in the former case: that it is the logarithmic curve, and not the right line, as some have supposed, the ordinates of which serve to measure the decreasing intensity of light, in proportion as it traverses a greater thickness of transparent medium. Upon this subject the celebrated Euler has a considerable paper in the Berlin Memoirs, *anno* 1750, from some of the calculations in which, it results, that to us the light of the full moon is about the 374,000th part of that of the sun: that of Saturn, in his opposition, a million of times less than that of the moon: that of Jupiter, in opposition, 46,000 less than that of the moon, or about twenty-two times greater than that of Saturn: that of Mars, supposing the nature of contexture the same, ought to be 20,000 times less than that of the moon, or nearly double to that of Jupiter: and that of Venus, in similar circumstances, the 4,200th part of that of the moon. Lambert has also written largely and accurately on the same subject, and deduced tables of results; such as, that the light, in passing through a common glass lens, is weakened about one sixth or one seventh; and that, by reflexion from a glass mirror, at an angle of sixty degrees, it loses about one third. Lambert was also author of a work on *pyrometry*, or the measure of fire and heat. Dr. Smith moreover wrote on photometry, in his Optics; as well as several other authors, in different works. Lahire, by experiment, found that the rays of the moon, collected into a focus by a burning glass, produced no sensible heat: from which Michell concluded, that the moon reflects only the seventh part of the light which she receives from the sun. The heat of the solar rays has been the subject of various inquiries by different authors. M. Rochon made experiments on the several degrees of heat of the different coloured rays; and found that the heat of the violet rays is but the eighth part of that of the red.—Hartley attempted experiments on the force of rays of different colours; and Herschel very lately (Philos. Transf. 1800), on their force, both as to heat and light; who states that, by exposing the prismatic colours to a very sensible thermometer, he found the red rays

raised the thermometer $6\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, the green $3\frac{1}{4}$, and the violet two degrees, the red having the greatest effect in heating. On the other hand, by examining the force of the various prismatic colours for enlightening objects, Mr. H. found that the red have but little effect, the yellow and green the most, the blue equal to the red, the indigo much less than the blue, and the violet a still smaller power. He found in general, that those rays which have most light, have very little heat; that hence, in a burning glass, the focus of light is different from that of heat, the latter being placed farther from the lens than the former: that there are rays from the sun which are less refrangible than those which affect the sight, and which have a great power in heating, but not in illuminating: he endeavours to prove that the heating and colouring rays are quite different; and, in fact, obtained heat, where he was not able to perceive any light, even after having employed a burning lens or a concave reflector. He also observed that the loss of heat and of light, which the solar rays suffer in passing through different diaphanous bodies, is very variable; for instance, that a glass of a deep red colour intercepts nearly all the light, but suffers four tenths of the heat to pass through; and so reciprocally with respect to other coloured glasses, which give little heat and much light.

In article XII. M. Mayer specifies a variety of glasses that produce curious effects and deceptions: such as, the phantasmagory, and various other singular mirrors and burning glasses, both ancient and modern; photophores; chimney lamps; the panorama; phloscope; thermolampe; polemoscope; panoscope; ocular harpichord; phosphorus; and light of the sea: all of them being described and treated in a manner equally instructive and amusing, and rendering this article altogether one of the most entertaining in the volume. We are sorry that the length to which our account has already extended, will not admit of a particular statement of its contents.—Article XIV. treats of what the historian calls vices or irregularities in vision, arising from various causes; also on squinting, on accidental colours, and on the apparent place of an object: containing a number of very curious observations and reflections.—The next article is appropriated chiefly to the objections that have been made against Newton's theory and experiments on colours, and the defences that have been alternately advanced. The historian explains clearly the objects or points disputed; then states the substance of the objections; and lastly, the more philosophic experiments and arguments of his triumphant advocates, independently of many ingenious remarks of M. Montucla himself. We here find several curious dissertations on the nature and number of the colours; on a new series of colours

produced by transmission, similar to those which had been formed by reflected light. Among the replies to other opposers of Newton's theory, we here find due justice done to that miserable philosopher, and ferocious brute, Marat.—In the sixteenth, or last, article of this optical part of the work, M. Montucla enumerates the chief opinions on the manner in which light is propagated. He treats principally of those of Newton, and Euler. The hypothesis of the former is, that light consists of emanations, or particles of matter, emitted from the sun in all directions, with the inconceivable velocity of about twelve millions of miles in a minute, or two hundred thousand miles in a second of time, calculated from its reaching the earth from the solar disk in less than eight minutes: that of the latter, that light is only an effect produced by the vibrations in an interposed fluid. Against both opinions several strong objections are stated, and especially those of d'Alembert; but our author presumes not to give any decision of his own. The account of optics then concludes with a few words on perspective, and a notice on the contents of Dr. Priestley's History of Optics.

The remainder of this third volume is appropriated to the subject of mechanics, both in theory and practice, in two books. Mechanics comprehends two branches quite distinct from each other, theory and practice. The history begins with the first of these, which includes the principles and the calculations of the equilibrium, and the motion of solids and of fluids. The ensuing book treats of machinery, and constitutes that important branch of mechanics which chiefly relates to the affairs of social life. M. Lagrange, in his *Mécanique Analytique*, published in 1788, reduces all problems to general formulæ, the development of which gives all the equations necessary for the solution of each problem: he unites under one point of view the different principles found for facilitating the solution of questions in mechanics, for showing their connexion and dependence, and for judging of their justness and extent. Our historian offers, from the same author, the explanation of this branch of the science; than whom he could not follow a more sure guide, or more profound investigator.

The first article displays the elements of statics, or of equilibrium. The laws of statics are founded on general principles, which resolve themselves into three, viz. that of the equilibrium in the lever, that of the composition of motion, and that of the virtual velocity, which John Bernouilli rendered general in 1717. Archimedes, the only writer among the ancients who has left any theory of mechanics, has proved himself, in his two books *De Equiponderantibus*, the author of the principle of the lever. The demonstration of Archimedes has been rendered more simple and general among the moderns, especially

by Galileo, Stevin, and Huygens; while some, as Lahire, Stevin, &c. have extended the principle of the lever to the other mechanical powers in general.

The second principle of equilibrium, or that of the composition of motion, is founded on this supposition, *viz.* that, if two forces act at once on a body in different directions, these two will be equal to one single force capable of impressing on the body the same motion as the two forces would produce when acting separately. But a body, made to move uniformly according to two different directions at once, necessarily runs through the diagonal of the parallelogram, the sides of which it would have run through separately by virtue of each of those two motions; whence it follows, that any two forces which act together on the same body, will be equivalent to one only, which is represented, in its quantity and its direction, by the diagonal of a parallelogram, the sides of which represent respectively the quantities and the directions of the two given forces; thus forming the principle of the composition of forces. The invention of this principle seems to have taken its rise from the mechanical dialogues of Galileo, though he might not be aware of its extent at the time; but was afterwards considered and applied generally in the writings of Descartes, Roberval, Mersenne, Wallis, Varignon, &c.

The third principle of statics, or that of the virtual velocities, consists in this fact, that two powers are in equilibrium when they are in the inverse ratio of their virtual velocities, or the velocities with which they would begin to move on being put in motion, estimating those incipient velocities in the directions of those powers: a principle which is also ascribed to Galileo as its author, but which was soon afterwards adopted by Wallis, and employed in demonstrations introduced into his treatise on mechanics; after which period, the same postulate has been rendered general, for any number of forces whatever, by John Bernoulli. This principle, however, has since given place to that of Maupertuis, which he calls *the law of rest*: while other demonstrations and variations of it have been also advanced by Euler, Courtivron, and others.

M. Lagrange contends that the third principle, of the virtual velocities, comprises all the others, which are merely variations of it in different forms. He gives it in a general formula, which includes all the problems that can be proposed on the equilibrium of bodies; and offers new applications of it for any system of forces whatever, in his *Mécanique Analytique*.

Article II. is appropriated to the principles of dynamics, which is the science of accelerative or retardative forces, and of the various motions arising from them. This science is wholly due to the moderns; and it was Galileo who first laid its foundation, in his determination of the descent of heavy bodies and

the laws of projectiles. Huygens extended the science, by adding, to the theory of the acceleration of heavy bodies, those of the motion of pendulums and of centrifugal forces; and thus prepared the way for the grand discovery of universal gravitation by Newton, in whose hands mechanics became a science wholly new; while the invention of the infinitesimal calculus furnished mathematicians with the means of treating questions relative to moving forces in the most general and perfect manner. The several general principles of dynamics, here announced and discriminated, have been gradually and successively developed by those great masters, Galileo, Descartes, Huygens, Newton, Wallis, d'Alembert, Bernouilli, Euler, Lagrange, Prony, &c.

In the third article, M. Montucla treats of the conservation of what is called the living forces; which principle is this, *viz.* that, in the actions of all bodies on each other, whether by their shock when they are elastic, or are connected together by inflexible rods, or threads, or whether operating by universal gravitation, or by whatever other means they communicate motion, the sum of all the products (called *vires vivæ* or living forces) of each mass or body multiplied by the square of its velocity, however changing, is still preserved, or amounts to the same constant quantity. The derivation of this general theorem is given, and an account of the works in which its has been chiefly used, as those of the Bernouillis, d'Alembert, Lagrange, &c.—The ensuing article describes an additional principle, and upon which d'Alembert founded the solutions in his work on dynamics; a principle which had been also mentioned by Fontaine and Dan. Bernouilli, and has since been employed by other philosophers.

The fifth article describes the violent disputes which occurred in the latter part of the seventeenth century, concerning the designation of the expression, 'moving force or momentum.' It had been stated by Descartes, and has been ever since acquiesced in by all philosophers, that the motive or moving force of a body is duly expressed by the product of the mass or body multiplied by the velocity with which it moves; and that hence the force of the same body, in different cases of its motion, is directly proportional to the velocity of its motion. But, in the year 1686, Leibnitz published a paper in the *Leipsc Act's*, stating that the foregoing opinion was erroneous, and that the measure of the motive force was the product of the mass multiplied by the square of the velocity, or that the force is proportional to the square of the velocity. This new opinion was soon attacked by some philosophers, and defended by others; and the dispute became warmer and more general, till at length all the chief mathematicians in Europe were involved in the quarrel; most of the continental mathematicians defending

Leibnitz and his new opinion, while the English, and a few of the more respectable among those of the continent, stood up for the old doctrine, which in the end re-obtained the victory, and has continued to prevail to the present day, being now the general opinion of all nations. The historian, in a neat manner, states the arguments of the principal disputants on both sides, and concludes with his approbation of the decision in favour of the old doctrine.

The sixth article describes another principle in dynamics, which was also the subject of an additional quarrel among the philosophers of Europe, rendered the more remarkable by the circumstance, that the brightest geniuses and one of the greatest princes of his day entered the lists. This principle was proposed by Maupertuis, in 1744, to the Academy of Sciences, under the name of, *The principle of the least action*; and it is thus defined, viz. When several bodies, acting on each other, undergo a change in their motion, the change is always such, that the quantity of action, employed by nature to produce it, is the least that is possible; and this action has for its measure, according to Maupertuis, the continued product of the mass by the space and velocity; which product is to be a minimum, or the least possible. Koenig, professor of mathematics at the Hague, objected to this discovery, representing it as of little value, and quoted moreover, in support of his assertion, an extract from a copy of a letter which he said had been written by Leibnitz, but whose original could never be produced. Several other mathematicians were discredited by objections to the law, and among others, the celebrated Voltaire, though he could not have any pretensions to such kind of learning, and only entered into the quarrel through dislike to Maupertuis, who was defended by many able mathematicians, and even by the king of Prussia himself, in a paper written with his own hand. The principle nevertheless was scarcely deserving of such lively and general interest among the philosophers of Europe, as most problems can be better performed without the use of it.

Article VII. treats of the curves called *tautochrones*, being those in every arc of which a heavy body will perform its vibrations always in equal times. It is well known that the common cycloid is a curve having that property in a nonresisting medium; but when the vibrating body is resisted by the medium, or by friction, or otherwise, then other curves are produced, which have the property in question; and it is this latter case which is the subject of the article, in which are particularly noticed the solutions of Newton, Jo. Bernouilli, Euler, Fontaine, d'Alembert, Lagrange, Necker, &c.—In the article ensuing, are considered the various solutions that have been given of the curious and difficult problem concerning the vibrations of a tense chord. The ancients knew very well that

the sound of a tense chord is excited by the vibrations of that chord; but it was not till the commencement of the eighteenth century that philosophers began to inquire into the nature and velocity of that motion, and the properties of the curve assumed by a vibrating chord. The first solution was given by Dr. Brook Taylor; and he was afterwards followed by the other great mathematicians, Bernouilli, d'Alembert, Euler, Lagrange, &c.

The ninth article treats of the ballistic curve and military projectiles, especially those made in a resisting medium, such as the atmosphere, and justly esteemed one of the most difficult problems in dynamics. It was Galileo who first treated of this curve; and, neglecting the resistance of the air, he found that a military projectile must describe a path in the form of a common parabola. Hence, such a projectile setting out with a given velocity and direction, it was easy to calculate its range and the time of its flight, as well as every other circumstance relating to it. In this determination, and in these principles, every philosopher and practitioner in artillery acquiesced, supposing the resistance of the air of little or no consequence, till near the middle of the eighteenth century, when the experiments and reasoning of Mr. Robins proved their extreme absurdity, and opened the way to the true theory and practice of ballistics. To such a degree did the errors extend by the old or parabolic theory, that he shewed that, according to it, some projectiles would appear to range ten times, or twenty times, or even thirty times, beyond what it is found by experience they really and actually do. This discovery of Robins's gave rise to a new theory of ballistics, which was afterwards treated of by some of the greatest mathematicians; as, Euler, Bernouilli, Herman, Taylor, Lambert, Broda, &c. yet without bringing the science to any degree of practical utility.

In article X. the history treats of *hydrodynamics*, or the equilibrium and motion of fluids, a science which has chiefly arisen in the 18th century, because the old analysis was insufficient for the solution of such problems. These problems chiefly respect the motion of water through small holes in the bottom of vessels, but extend to water in pipes and canals, &c. &c. It was Torricelli who first gave the true law for the issuing of water through small holes, *viz.* that its velocity is proportional to the square root of the height of the upper surface above the orifice, or that the velocity is equal to that due to a heavy body in falling from the same height. This science was also treated of, and improved, by most of the principal mathematicians of the day, as Pascal, Mariotte, Newton, Varignon, Poleni, Frontini, Bernouilli, Maclaurin, d'Alembert, Clairaut, Lagrange, Bossu, Prony, &c. In this enumeration of authors, it is re-

markable that the history has not noticed the labours of Buat, who, in two volumes octavo, offers more experiments on this subject than perhaps any of the other authors.

The eleventh article is devoted to the course and motion of rivers, floods, canals, aqueducts, &c. one of the most important branches of this science, especially in some countries. For, if those currents of water which ought to carry fertility into the countries they irrigate, be a general benefit of nature, how often do they overspread the earth with ravage and desolation! Hence the art of enchainning them, as it were, is become necessary in countries exposed to such devastations. This part of hydraulics has taken its rise, and has been chiefly cultivated, in Italy, where the ravages of the Po and other rivers have created the science: and the chief artists, who in this country have been numerous and highly respectable, together with their works, and some foreign writers, are here particularly described and appreciated; such as Ximenes, Castelli, Guglielmini, Grandi, Lecchi, Frisi, Regi, Poleni, Lorgna, Fontana, Fantoni, Bossu, Belidor, &c. and Buat, whom we expected to have found in the former article.—The next, and last, article of this theoretic part of hydraulics is employed on the motion of the waves, and the oscillations of fluids. This subject was first treated by Newton, in his *Principia*; besides whom, there are only two other authors mentioned in the present work, viz. Flaugerges and Lagrange. As to the resistance of fluids, it is referred to the chapter on Navigation, in the 4th volume; but there is subjoined in this volume the history of the practical part of mechanics.

The fourth, and last, book of the volume before us is entirely employed on the practice of mechanics, or machinery, and is wholly the composition of the editor Lalande. It is divided into fifteen articles, of which we can give little more than the titles, on account of the length to which our analysis has been already extended, although each of them is well deserving of a particular and minute account. The method employed by this historian is that of Montucla; he describes the particulars of every part of each subject, distinguishing every author, and the peculiarities of his manner.

The first article is on the physical powers of man and beast, exemplified in their different positions and modes of action, laden or unladen, carrying, drawing, pushing, lifting, bearing, &c.—The second article is on friction in machines. Here, according to his practice in most cases, Lalande cites chiefly the works of the French authors. He might, in this article, very well have referred to several English writers, of whom he only mentions Desaguliers.—Article III. treats on the rigidity of cords and ropes, with the resistance it produces in machines.—The fourth article treats of the famous water-machine of Marly,

the largest in the world, and of other machines moved by the force of water acting on wheels; with the remarks of a number of celebrated French engineers. The machine of Marly was built between the years 1676 and 1682, to convey the waters of the Seine to the palace of Marly; it is said to have cost then seven millions of livres, equivalent to fourteen millions of the present time, or near six hundred thousand pounds sterling. But no expense was sufficient to satisfy the taste and the magnificence of Louis XIV. He would not even suffer any remonstrances to be made to him on such occasions. Colbert represented to him the enormity of the expenses of the palace of Versailles; the king replied, 'You know my intentions; I know the state of my affairs; I give you orders, and you execute; which is all that I require of you. You must serve me in the manner I desire, and believe that I do every thing for the best.'—Article V. treats of the steam-engine; with a neat history of its invention and improvements, by Worcester, Savery, Newcomen, Watt, Betancour, &c. Article VI. describes some other new machines, chiefly of French invention, for raising water; particularly a kind of sucking machine by M. Trouville, acting by a rarefaction of the air; the hydraulic ram of Montgolfier, acting by repeated and perpetual strokes or impulses; and the water-rope or rope-pump of M. Vera, invented in 1781.—The seventh article treats of water-mills, wind-mills, hand-mills, and thrashing-machines. Article VIII. contains an account of a variety of other machines, lately invented, for augmenting forces of divers kinds; for moving boats; the aërostatic machines of Montgolfier and others, with a short history; in the conclusion of which it is stated that the conquest of Belgium by the French, in 1793, was owing, in a great measure, to the use of such machinery: 'In the campaign of that year,' says Lalande, 'twenty-eight ascensions were made in that country, with the aërostat; and the 7th Messidor, at the battle of Fleurus, general Moreau was during two hours up in a balloon, observing the motions of the enemy's army: during this time he sent two letters down to general Jourdan the commander, from the height of two hundred toises; and these letters produced the battle, which led, in its consequences, to the conquest of all Belgium.' Then follows an account of the diving boats of Fulton. In article IX. are contained accounts of various machines used in manufactures, such as for knitting, spinning, weaving, printing, &c.

Article X. contains a short history of clocks and clock-work, with an account of the principal works and artists in that line; also of curious and secret locks. We here find clocks with wheels mentioned in 1120, though they were made probably much earlier. But the first clock which occurs in history, and which appears to have been constructed on the principle of the

present day; is that of our countryman Richard Wallingford, abbot of St. Alban's, who lived in 1326. After that time the history notices several others in succession, and particularly certain curious large church or town clocks, of a very compound structure: but we do not find when, or on what occasion, the use of the pendulum was annexed to them. We have here also accounts of various complex machines, exhibiting the planetary or celestial motions.—Article XI. gives an account of turnery, and of turning machines.—Article XII. of the curious automations of Vaucanson and other artists; such as the flute-player; the duck, which ate, drank, and digested; the chess-player, &c. &c.—Article XIII. contains the history of that chimæra, the perpetual motion, and the attempts made to effect it, with the reasonings of philosophers on its impossibility.—Article XIV. exhibits an account of some of the most celebrated mechanists, who have distinguished themselves by the invention and construction of a variety of curious machines; as Rennequire, the maker of the water-machine at Marly; Vaucanson, the automaton-framer; Zabaglia, at Rome; Ferracini, at Padua; and many others, the account of whose performances would be very curious, if we had space for inserting it.—The XVth or last article contains a catalogue of several repositories and collections of machines, and a great number of authors and books that treat of machines, which are chiefly in the French, Italian, German or Dutch languages; two articles only being in the English, viz. Baily's collection of the instruments of the Society of Arts, and Labelye's account of the foundations of Westminster bridge.

Thus concludes the third volume of this curious and elaborate history. The particulars of the remaining volume must be deferred till our next Appendix.

(To be continued.)

ART. II. *De Origine et Usu Obeliscorum, &c.*

On the Origin and Use of Obelisks. By George Zoega. (Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 508.)

WE return with pleasure to this interesting work; and, in resuming the funeral rites of the Egyptians, pass from their sepulchres to their coffins. These for the most part were of sycamore, and on their lids presented the figure of the deceased deposited within, after having been embalmed and swathed. In general, the face only was expressed; but sometimes the arms and hands, with their appendages. Those containing the remains of men, exhibited a small oblong beard. All were generally whitened; often decorated with paintings, and sometimes

with gold. Other integuments for the dead were formed of linen bandages glued together; and frequently the bodies of distinguished personages were deposited in stone excavated in a proper form to receive them. Of this kind are those lately brought from Egypt, and now in the front court of the British Museum—where that in which the remains of Alexander were deposited is on many accounts intitled to attention *.

The shorter notices on this section refer to particular monuments in various collections, and incidental discussions suggested by the subject.

Monuments reared as memorials of the dead form the next topic of inquiry. The author takes a retrospect toward those of different nations in the earliest ages, and notices such as have been particularly distinguished, down to the sepulchre of Adrian.

The large tumuli and stones in Scotland and Scania, with the Mausoleum erected by Artemisia, and the sepulchre of Porcenna, are each distinctly considered.

These lead to observations on other kinds of funeral monuments, such as stones fixed in the earth, or the more 'frail memorial' of wood 'erected nigh;' trees planted on, or arms and other implements suspended over, places of interment. The oblong stones in the north of Europe, whether rough, or polished and shaped like triliteral obelisks, arrest the author's attention, those especially with sculptured figures and Runic inscriptions; some in Scotland, of which one is not less than twenty-three feet high, with many remarkable sculptures; the monuments of the Greeks in honour of the dead; the goals for their games; the forms of pillars on their painted vases; sepulchres with pillars and inscriptions erected by their country for public benefactors; inscriptions of other kinds, and the lofty columns that gradually proceeded from them; the columns of Trajan and the Antonines; the sepulchral obelisk at Nicæa; the inscribed cippi of the Greeks and Romans; urns and sarcophagi with inscriptions, and sarcophagi placed in the open air, are each subjects of remark; as are the sculptured resemblances of the dead; which Mr. Zoega thinks more ancient than epitaphs. Hence, after pointing out the figures on the sepulchre of Choerætas, as the most ancient seen by Pausanias, he adverts to those of Thyestes, Midas, and Sardanapalus, with the usual subjects of sculpture;—the monuments of Archimedes, Leonidas, Epaminondas, Diogenes, Isocrates;—the face of the dead represented on a pillar, and the whole figure substituted for it.

Under this head, notes are added on incidental and correlative subjects, which at once display research and erudition.

* Of this, and the other antiquities taken from the French, we are glad to learn that most faithful representations will shortly be published, from the *fac-similes* of Mr. *Alexander*.

The third class of these monuments comprehends structures and inclosures in memory of the dead. Commencing with the most simple memorials, our author traces them down to tutelary shrines, which, from the symbols of the gods upon them, suggested the idea of burying in temples. From the sepulchre of Cyrus, Mr. Zoega takes occasion to mention, that, though sepulchral edifices seldom occur among the Greeks, they were nevertheless of ancient use; whence he proceeds to instance those of Alcmaeon, Meleager, Inus, Æacus, and others; and adds examples of illustrious persons of both sexes who were buried in the temples of the gods. Edifices in sepulchres consecrated to the infernal deities were often reared, and especially to that divinity of whom the deceased was a votary. The popular belief is stated, that representations of the dead in the form of the god had a peculiar effect. The sepulchral structures of the Romans, with all their appendages and magnificence, are the last points considered under this division.

The principal notes respect the sepulchre of Nitocris over the gate of Babylon; the heroön of Epideta the Spartan, and private apotheosis; the sepulchre of Trimalchio; and those in the Ceramicus.

Returning to the Egyptians, Mr. Zoega observes of them that they neither used tumuli of earth, nor sepulchral pillars; and also, that Diodorus is not entitled to credit when he speaks of pillars on the sepulchres of Isis and Osiris beyond the limits of Egypt. In Egypt, sarcophagi, representing the features of the dead, stood in each family for domestic monuments; and our author maintains that hieroglyphic figures and characters on sarcophagi have no reference to the history of the deceased, but respect the national religion. An altar of granite, with figures of this kind, in the Borgian museum, is here particularly noticed.

The public monuments of the Egyptians of a sepulchral kind, hitherto remarked, are either the surfaces of rocks which have been chiseled, small shrines, temples, or else pyramids. Their sepultures were often in the sides of mountains, or in vaults concealed in the sands, that soil adapted to plantation, or the germination of seeds, might not be defiled by any person deceased. The surfaces of rocks hewn, together with epistyles, sculptured figures, and hieroglyphic inscriptions, are often found in various parts of Egypt. A remarkable sculpture presents itself on a rock of mount Esselsele, another in mount Tuna, and a picture on the surface of a rock in the confines of Savadi.

A note here follows on the sculptured rocks at Persepolis, Naxirustan, and in other parts of Asia and Europe.

After a digression, which, we must confess, however curious the information it contains, is rather wide of the subject of obelisks, Mr. Zoega reverts to the pyramids of Egypt. These, he says, chiefly occur in that part of the country where subter-

aneous vaults in the sandy plains were substituted for sepulchres; which, to render them inaccessible, had massy edifices erected over their entrances. Many remains of such are still visible near Busris and Saccara, generally of a square form, and each including a well. These pyramids (for such is their shape when carried to a considerable height) are now so well known to our readers from late publications, that it would be needless to describe them more particularly in this place. Mr. Zoega supposes them in the first instance to have gradually obtained their vast height from small exemplars; and that colossal figures were placed on their tops. He conceives them also to have been inscribed with hieroglyphics, though none be now visible. Some, he asserts, had porticoes built against them, instead of vestibules. Invariable tradition amongst the Egyptians asserts them to have been sepulchres; and the name of pyramids is thought by our author to confirm the report.

The particulars in the notes of this section, though curious, we pass over, for the reason just above given; as we do the section that follows, which consists of accounts collected from travelers, with the author's remarks upon them.

Quitting this topic, Mr. Zoega observes that it was anciently the custom amongst persons of high rank to build chapels near their houses, to serve them as sepulchres; and under this head he adverts to a passage in Herodotus, concerning a daughter of king Mycerinus, buried within the precinct of the palace in an ox of wood, which was elevated annually to salute the sun—supposing the tradition erroneous, and that, instead of a nameless young woman, Isis was intended. Other instances are adduced of royal funerals in temples; and, amongst the citations from Strabo and Herodotus, we meet with a passage from the latter relative to ancient kings buried with the sacred crocodiles in the Labyrinth, which was the temple of the nation at large. Hence it is inferred, that sometimes one and the same building was either a sepulchre or temple; as in the instance of the Osymandeum, which others style Memnonium, the most magnificent of all monuments.

The notes under this section relate to the burying of Alexander and the Ptolemies in the royal palaces; the sepulchres of the Alexandrians in gardens; the cenotaph of Jannes and Jambres, and the proof that there was but one Labyrinth in Egypt.

In chapter II. our author enters on the very interesting inquiry into the use and origin of letters in Egypt; and, after having briefly touched on the incongruous opinions of the learned, cites Clemens Alexandrinus, who assigns to the ancient Egyptians three sorts of characters; of which two, the vulgar and sacerdotal, were alphabetic; the third hieroglyphic: whilst Herodotus and Diodorus mention two alone. To elucidate the question, authorities are brought from various writers;

whence it is deduced, that on stones hieroglyphics only were employed; but in books, alphabetic characters. From Plato it is inferred that these alphabetic characters were peculiar to the Egyptians, and invented by one of themselves. Their vulgar writing was chiefly used in epistles, the sacerdotal in books; but it appears from Apuleius that books were also written in hieroglyphics. Apuleius speaks of a double species of letters used in their books of ritual, the hieroglyphic and sacerdotal alphabet. Each alphabet had its stated number and order of elements; but the sacerdotal was the more elegant, and varied by combinations and accents. From Plutarch, the number is twenty-five; of which the first was called, from its figure, the *ibis*: these however were all consonants. Mr. Zoega observes, that the passage of Demetrius Phalereus on the seven vowels is to be understood as referring to the modulation of song, and not to letters. From Aristides of Canopus, it is inferred that the Coptic characters were not introduced till the third century of the vulgar æra.

The notes of this section are peculiarly interesting.

The ensuing commences with an observation that only one mode of hieroglyphic writing hath been found, which is that whose hieroglyphic symbols, like literary characters, are arranged in series or verses, and thus express the order of their archetypal ideas. They differ from Chinese characters, which, instead of being representative, are mere arbitrary forms, and from the Mexican pictures, which have no such order or arrangement. It is well observed, that the Egyptian figures, whether engraved or painted, which from their action or disposition express either fable or allegory, are improperly confounded with hieroglyphic inscriptions. Hieroglyphic symbols are here distributed into five classes, and examples adduced under each; and it is laid down as a universal principle, that hieroglyphics may be equally styled language and writing; for, that the figures to be expressed are neither restricted to numbers nor to words, but are common to all characters and every idiom. As to what hath been termed abbreviated or cursive hieroglyphics, they are to be regarded but as the rude forms of more perfect characters. Under this head a passage from Plutarch is cited relative to the inscription found on the sepulchre of Alcmenes. Mr. Zoega very properly proceeds to remark that a greater or less degree of elegance in hieroglyphics is no characteristic of their date; and that, though they were chiefly used on stone, they occur also upon whatever other substance could be cut or written upon. After the invention of alphabetic writing, hieroglyphics, though originally of universal use, were chiefly restricted to sacred monuments. Various subjects, to which hieroglyphics have been applied, are collected from ancient authors; and that the knowledge of hieroglyphics was

chiefly confined to the priests, is understood not to have arisen from any policy in locking up their import, but as proceeding solely from the difficulty of understanding them. The philosophy of symbols amongst the Egyptians, which some have confounded with hieroglyphic writing, is considered and illustrated from Plotinus, Clemens, and Philo. The notes contain explanations of various hieroglyphics collected and applied from ancient writers.

Our author begins his next section with asserting that painting, whether taken in a larger or more confined sense, is of the highest antiquity among the Egyptians. The fables of the gods, the exploits of illustrious men, rites, customs, public institutions, as is shown from examples, were frequently expressed by them both in sculpture and in colours. From monuments of this kind, with the symbols and tropes they exhibit, Mr. Zoega deduces hieroglyphic writing, which led, in his opinion, to the arrangement of figures in the manner of letters, and to the delineation of a series of figures in the successive order of ideas. At what precise period, however, this took place, there is no document existing to determine. The absolute invention of letters was ascribed by them to Thoth, or Hermes, whom our author takes for the genius of the human mind; but whom we, for reasons too copious to be here inserted, ascribe ultimately to Moses. The commencement of hieroglyphics is referred by him to the time when the Egyptians and Ethiopians were one people. Their introduction he considers to have been gradual, and the phonetic notes to have been of a later date. Their golden age he supposes to have been that of Sesostris, when men of wisdom were in the highest repute. After the form of government was changed under Pharametichus, they began to run into fanciful excesses, and were embarrassed by mysterious and ænigmatic allusions. Proofs of this assertion are brought from a temple in Cous, and a shrine in the British Museum. The Bembine table is here introduced. Having remarked that the sacerdotal order greatly declined under the Lagidæ, and was almost extinct under the Romans—an opinion, however, which is opposed by the zodiac of Dendera—Mr. Zoega notices their revival in the second century after the subjugation of Egypt by the Roman arms; and instances monuments inscribed with hieroglyphics, not in Italy only, but in Rome itself. The interpreters of Egyptian antiquities which flourished under the Romans are then considered; the opposition of Severus is believed by our author to have but little effect upon them; the new school of Platonists are represented as diligent inquirers into their origin and design; and, even in the time of Theodosius, Mr. Zoega traces several who were professedly illustrators of hieroglyphics. As the gnostics, chemists, astrologers, and magi, affected their use, the Arabians be-

came acquainted with them; and we cannot but express our earnest wish, that the Arabic key to them, lately brought from Egypt by Mr. Hammer, may be soon presented to the world, with his remarks, by the learned gentleman to whom it was committed. Mr. Zoega has traced out six epochs of hieroglyphic writing:—of these, the first embraces the period before the invention of alphabetic characters—thence to the time of Psammetichus;—from his time to the foundation of Alexandria—thence to the taking of Egypt by the Romans;—from that period to the third century of the vulgar æra—and thence to the emperor Theodosius.

On the present section the notes are particularly interesting; and the transition from it to the alphabetic writing of the Egyptians, which introduces the next, is obvious.

To the Egyptians our author refers the origin of alphabetic writing; and deduces from them its communication to other nations, from the improbability that such an invention should have occurred to more than one people; and the consideration, that all the nations who first used alphabetic writing occupied an undivided continent. No individual is considered as the inventor; but that, slowly and gradually, sentences were separated into words, words into syllables, and syllables into their component sounds; so that words stood for sentences, thence syllables for words, and letters for simple sounds. To this hypothesis there are, in our judgement, many and insurmountable objections, the discussion of which would far exceed the limits of a Review, notwithstanding what Mr. Zoega proceeds to advance, that there is no arriving at syllabic writing by the use of phonetic signs, but through the medium of hieroglyphics, which were known solely to the Egyptians. This he explains from the supposition that things to be expressed by similar sounds were originally denoted by one and the same; but that afterward it occurred to the sacred scribe to separate those phonetic signs, and so to apply these divisions, that words and syllables might hence be enunciated. The next step, he takes for granted, was to separate the phonetic signs from the forms of objects, whence of their own accord the system of syllabic writing would follow; which whilst cultivated by these scribes, who would study to distinguish with accuracy the component syllables of the language, the elements, of which these syllables consisted, would present themselves, and exhibit the first rudiments of elementary writing. At length the simple elements being separated, their number would be defined, and their respective powers fixed. The passages in Plato which refer to Theuth as the inventor of letters are next adduced, and arguments offered to show that writing was more ancient than Moses.—To these we could add others of the same import; but, notwithstanding we admit the fact, there still appear satisfactory reasons

to suppose, that, under the name of Hermes or Thoth, the invention of alphabetic writing was referred by the Egyptians to him. Writing thus invented, the hieratic method, for the sake of elegance and mystery, was superadded. Authorities follow from the ancients to show that the alphabet originated in Egypt; such passages also are brought as attribute this origin to the Phœnicians; and the letters introduced from Phœnicia into Greece by Cadmus are affirmed to have been the only ground for the tradition that Cadmus had first carried letters into Greece.

The chief notes on this section are occupied by the principal topics of investigation, which are obviously connected with it, and evince to much advantage the author's researches.

Under this head, the last section adverts to the opinions of modern writers on the foregoing topic; particularly those of Warburton, De Guignes, Gebelin, D'Origny, and Tychsen; and concludes with examining the secession of Egyptian soldiers into Ethiopia in the reign of Psammetichus.

The notes relate to the traces of elementary characters which are instanced by ancient writers, and contain passages from Herodotus and Diodorus on the Automoli and Axuma.

(*To be continued.*)

ART. III.—*Mémoires de l'Institut National des Sciences et des Arts.*
Memoirs of the National Institute of Sciences and Arts. (Continued
 from Vol. XXXVI. p. 527.)

OUR last notice of the labours of the class of Moral and Political Sciences extended to vol. III. Memoir XII. We shall proceed in the order in which the different communications occur.

'XIII. Memoir on the Constitution of the Spartan Republic. By M. P. C. Levesque.'—The Lacedæmonians never wrote; and we are obliged, therefore, in examining their political regulations, to have recourse to the accounts of foreigners. Plato has entered, with some degree of detail, into their constitution; but M. Levesque does not give implicit credit to the statements of the Athenian philosopher. Plato had beheld in his own country the evil effects which result from ochlocracy, or democracy carried to its extreme; and hence, observes our essayist, fell in love with aristocracy (which was the form of the Spartan government) from the propensity by which mankind are naturally impelled to pass from one extreme to another: disgusted with the first democratic republic of Greece, he was insensibly seduced into a commendation of the first aristocratic republic. Xenophon was banished from Athens; and in his

exile he took refuge at Sparta. Xenophon also has written in favour of the same government; but our author thinks his motives are even more obvious and partial than those of Plato. Xenophon was followed by Plutarch, but at a distance of upwards of three centuries after the destruction of the republic by the tyrant Nabis:—he cannot therefore be supposed, like the two prior writers, to have been personally interested in his description. But Plutarch is conceived by our author to have possessed more of the character of a modern courtier than has hitherto been attributed to him; to have been favourable to monarchic governments when he spoke of kings; to pure democracy when he addressed himself to a people whose government was democratic; and to the Lacedæmonian aristocracy when he wrote of the Lacedæmonians. The political constitution of Sparta, properly so called, was in a high degree gross and barbarous. Lycurgus, perhaps, did all he could; but he had to work upon stubborn and untoward materials. Yet M. Levesque seems to carry his resentment against this republic beyond all due bounds; and, in the violence of his abhorrence, not to allow it the virtues of which it was actually possessed. The country of Laconia he supposes to have been divided into three classes. When the Dorians first introduced the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus, they instantly became divided into two factions—of which the faction that prevailed instituted a system of equality among their own class, and assumed the distinctive name of Spartans to themselves; while it obliged the faction which was subjugated to establish itself in the environs of the metropolis, and to become in every respect slaves to the conquerors. This submissive party was discriminated by the denomination of Laconians; and, while a small portion only of the coarser and less productive lands was allotted to these latter, their superiors rioted in the enjoyment of a very large tract of the richest and most select territory which appertained to the general use of the republic. Yet the slavery sustained by the Laconians bore no comparison in point of severity with that afterwards endured by the inhabitants of Helos, upon their captivity and the destruction of their city. The Lacedæmonians therefore, are divided by our memoirist, into three classes:—the Spartans proper, who were a sort of noblesse; the Laconians, or great body of the people, not admitted to the privileges of legislation, or even of civil distinctions, and who were consequently a kind of servants to the former; and the Helots, with whom all future captives were united, who were in every sense of the word slaves.

Our author believes, in opposition to general testimony, that the Spartan men were rich and covetous, and the Spartan women excessive cowards. He traces, or rather attempts to trace, an anachronism in the histories which attribute to Lycurgus the

suppression of all coin but that of copper—contending, from the Chronicon of Paros, that even silver coin, which preceded that of gold, was not in use till upwards of a century after the æra of that legislator, having been first introduced by the order of Phido, in the island of Ægina, in the year 895 before Christ.—The Spartans, he admits, had no public treasury; and, in this respect, might be considered as poor, when put in comparison with the Athenians, who had a prodigious exchequer:—but he maintains that individually they were enormously rich; their diet, clothing, and habitation, being extremely simple and inexpensive; and the landed estates belonging to every citizen very ample and highly productive. They at length declined from their own paucity of population—sedulously prohibiting strangers from settling in their territories—diminishing their numbers by incessant wars, and preventing a proportionate augmentation by a promiscuous intercourse of the sexes. They were, in the opinion of M. Levesque, a proud, cruel, and covetous people—totally devoid of political happiness, and whose courage consisted rather in haughtiness and temerity than in real bravery and magnanimous valour.

‘XIV. On the ancient Legislation of France, comprising the Salique Law, the Law of the Visigoths, and the Law of the Burgundians. By M. Légrand d’Aussy.’

Gaul, after having long submitted to the Roman yoke, was invaded, in the course of the fifth century of the Christian æra, and nearly at the same period of time, by three distinct and barbarous nations, the Visigoths, the Burgundians, and the Franks. Each entered at different points of the country; imposed, on the respective territory it conquered, a new and more degrading slavery than any to which it had antecedently submitted; compelled it to adopt a new system of manners; and introduced a new constitution, which was in every instance drawn up in the Roman language. Of what these constitutions consisted, we know however but very little, and especially with respect to the legal codes of the Burgundians and the Visigoths. That of the Burgundians is reported to have been so severe, that Gundebad was obliged to revise it, to prevent a general insurrection. Of the *lex Gundobada* several copies are still in existence; but the original Burgundian law has totally perished. In like manner, all that remains of the constitution of the Visigoths is a bulky series of revisions and corrections by successive monarchs, while the original code has entirely disappeared; and almost every thing that relates to it is conjecture. The primary law of the Salique Franks is little better understood. It was at first published under the title of *Pactus legis Salicæ*, at a period prior to the spread of Christianity among this people; but it was afterwards so much revised, corrected, and augmented by Clovis, Childibert, Chlotaris, and Dagobert, and eventually by Charle-

magne, that but very little of the original spirit and substance may be supposed to have survived such repeated repairs and embellishments. The few fragments, however, that remain from any of these separate institutions, or may be worth noticing, M. Legrand has here collected, and animadverted upon. That of the Visigoths seems to have possessed the longest existence: their union with the Franks did not take place till the æra of Pepin. 'At length,' concludes our memoirist, 'a new order of things changed every circumstance that related to the three nations. The imbecillity or incapacity of the monarch encouraged the usurpations of the chiefs. The feudal system was produced, and its new jurisprudence totally annulled that of the three codes. Insensibly all of them fell into disuse. Finally, towards the commencement of the third dynasty, they sunk into oblivion; and nothing was known in France beyond Roman rights and customs.'

'XV. On the Position of certain Places and Rivers within the Limits of Argolis, in the South of Peloponnesus. By M. Mentelle.'—In their respective charts of the Peloponnesus, d'Anville and Delisle are well known to have differed in a variety of points, and particularly in their position of Mycenæ, the former having placed it to the north-east of Argos, and the latter to the south-west. M. Mentelle endeavours, and with much laudable diffidence, to correct the errors of both these established chartists; for, in their maps of ancient Greece, he detects errors in each of them, though in the position of Mycenæ he entirely, and we believe justly, coincides with d'Anville. Delisle, indeed, appears to have misunderstood Strabo, while he obviously designed from his text. Temenium, the Lernæan lake, Heræum, and Mycenæ, are, in reality, only known in a geographic view by their relative proximity to each other; and hence it is not to be wondered at that we should meet with occasional differences of site in the most accurate and industrious geographers. Barthelemy, in his 'Travels of the younger Anacharsis,' for the most part coincides with d'Anville and M. Mentelle. A neat chart is subfixed, illustrative of the subject in dispute.

'XVI. On the Kind of Questions whose Solution is accurately obtained by the Science of Political Economy. By M. Véron-Fortbonnais, Associate-Member.'—The class of Political Economy of the National Institute publicly proposed the following question about three years since: 'Is it advantageous to a republic to borrow, and at what rate of interest? M. Micoud-Domons, administrator of Mont-de-Piété, replied to this inquiry by two letters; in the former of which he discusses the general system of paper credit, and the administration of finances; and in the latter, after some observations on the moral powers of governments, enters more minutely upon the question

immediately proposed. The letters of M. Micoud-Domons became highly popular, and were supposed to have been written with uncommon ability; but, in his consideration of this important question itself, he hesitated not to declare, that, if examined with much logical precision, it was altogether insoluble. 'The question,' said he, 'must be idle, if taken in an absolute sense; and, if considered in relation to existing circumstances, to treat it in a satisfactory manner, would be to form as many hypotheses as the variations of those circumstances themselves upon which the solution depends: and these may be infinite.'—Our present memoirist conceives, however, that an inquiry which has completely baffled the powers of M. Micoud may receive at least some portion of irradiation from his own efforts. All his observations appear to us, nevertheless, hypothetic and gratuitous; and the administration of the keen-sighted Colbert is not likely to be renewed by any of the remarks of the present financier.

'XVII. Dissertation on some Questions of Ideology; containing additional Proofs that it is from the Sensation of Resistance we derive a Knowledge of Bodies; and that, anterior to such Knowledge, no Act of the Judgement can take place, from an Inability to discriminate our simultaneous Perceptions from each other. By M. Destutt Tracy.'

'XVIII. Dissertation on Existence, and on the Hypotheses of Mallebranche and Berkeley relative to that Subject. By the same.'—In our Appendix to vol. xxxii. p. 527, New Arrang. we entered at some length into M. Destutt's 'Hypothesis on Ideology, or the Faculty of Thinking';—an hypothesis whose foundation was laid by Locke, and much of whose superstructure was erected by Condillac. In the first of the two memoirs now before us, M. Destutt traces the different progressive steps of the French metaphysician toward the ultimate completion of his system, from his *Essay on the Origin of Human Understanding* in 1746, to the publication of his *Treatise on Sensations* in 1756; and thence to his more matured ideas upon the same subject, as communicated a short time anterior to his death, which occurred in 1780. In the course of this survey, M. Destutt notices the gradual approximation of Condillac toward his own hypothesis, by a more precise adherence, as he pretends, to the principles he first established; and conceives, that, in the few points in which they even at last differed, the difference was chiefly, if not entirely, owing to an unnecessary and illogical departure from these radical postulates. For ourselves, we think there is an essential difference in many instances, not only between their conclusions, but their primary and elementary positions; and that no length of time, or latitude of interpretation, could entirely have converted the author of *The Treatise on Sensations* to the theory of ideology as maintained in all its branches

by the present writer. But it is unnecessary for us to resume the subject: we have already examined the question, and ventured to deliver our opinion upon it.

The second of the two dissertations before us is so nearly connected with the first, that we have purposely united them. The precise difference between the theories, or, if our readers please, the metaphysic dreams, of Mallebranche and Berkeley, is not very generally known—though every reader is apprised that they were spiritualists. The former, by a long course of mental abstraction, and deep research into the rêveries of Platonism concerning the intellectual world, which was pretended to be the only reality and archetype of the sensible world, brought himself at length to believe that there is nothing capable of proof but pure *spirit*;—that we have no positive knowledge of *body*, and should have no certainty of its existence, had it not been communicated to us by Moses in his history of the creation: that we only perceive and see by a species of *instinct*—which is nevertheless a doubtful source of information;—that, whenever at length we attain positive truth, it is always God, or the thought of God, that we perceive;—and that hence, in literal conformity with the Scriptures, it is ‘in God we live, and move, and have our being.’ These are the chief doctrines which are contained in his volume, entitled a ‘Search after Truth,’ and are principally to be found in the fifth book of this work.

Berkeley not only advanced thus far in the theory of spiritualism, but pressed the theory itself much further; and maintained, that, notwithstanding every degree of deference was to be paid to the Mosaic narrative, this narrative itself, when fairly interpreted, did not prove, or even suppose, the existence of body: consequently he resigned himself with a greater degree of cordiality to the creed, that bodies do not exist; and attempted to demonstrate, that it is impossible they should exist otherwise than in the thought of a spirit, and more especially of the infinite spirit.

The system of M. Destutt is, on the contrary, altogether a system of materialism; and the arguments and observations of these spiritual philosophers having been urged against him, he now finds that he has not *begun* at the *beginning*; and that, instead of taking it for granted that a sensible world and that sensible objects actually exist around him, he is called upon to demonstrate the existence of external relations, and to decide whether even his own body be any thing or nothing? The whole opposition to his system, our author thinks, turns upon a perpetual equivocal, an uninterrupted confusion between the impression which a sensitive being receives, and which in such being we denominate sensation,—and the quality which resides, or is able to reside, in another being who is the cause of such sensation. This subject it is the object of M. Destutt to illu-

minate; and we will at least allow him the merit of patient and elaborate investigation, although we can by no means in every instance approve of his reasoning.

‘XIX. Reflexions on Projects of Pafigraphy. By the Same.’

—This memoir is designed as a kind of appendix to a prize essay of M. Degerando, written in answer to a question proposed by the National Institute—‘to determine what is the influence of signs on ideas?’ and afterwards very considerably enlarged, and extended to four volumes in octavo, and noticed, at some length, by ourselves in our Appendix to vol. xxx. New Arrangement, p. 481. Our author endeavours in the present paper to define, with additional accuracy, the meaning of the terms *tongues, languages, writings, hieroglyphics*: and the result of his observations is, that every system of signs immediately expressing our ideas is a real language, whether those signs be addressed to the ear, the eye, or the touch: that writing is not a system of signs representative of our ideas, but an assemblage of characters, by means of which the signs of a language addressed to the ear are rendered visible; whence it follows that no languages but those of speech can be either written or read—languages of sight traced on a surface, such, for example, as hieroglyphics, being painted and not written: that hence again the only real writing is syllabic or alphabetic: that the alphabet in common use is a writing strictly universal, since it is capable of representing every sound of every language: that universal writing is not therefore a discovery now to be made, the only thing wanting being a universal tongue; and that every research after pafigraphy should be regarded in this light, as an oral and not a visual language; that an oral language of this description would be highly useful, more easily learnt and retained than any visual language, and not more difficult to accomplish: but, finally, that the difficulties attending either are so numerous and extreme as to be altogether insurmountable; and that a universal language is in the same predicament as the perpetual motion. ‘Let us limit ourselves, therefore,’ observes our author, and we heartily concur with him in the recommendation, ‘to the amelioration of our own; nor let us be afraid, while making the attempt. The language whose employers will be most open to the dictates of reason, and will most readily throw off the trammels of custom, will soon be the best constituted language of any:—and the language which shall obtain such success will be, at all times, that which will make the nearest approach to universality.’

With this memoir the volume closes; and we now proceed to vol. III. of the Class of Literature and Polite Letters, of which we have already examined the first seven memoirs.

‘VIII. Sepulture, by M. Gouvé.’ This is a truly excel-

lent poem upon a subject which has been dreadfully abused in the course of the revolution. To re-establish a decency and solemnity in what relates to it, we have already noticed the appointment of a special commission on the part of the class of Moral and Political Sciences, and two reports which it has successively drawn up and communicated through M. Baudin*. The barbarities daily perpetrated during the nefarious æra of Robespierre seem to have deadened the heart to all the feelings of nature: the bodies of the deceased were often not interred at all: and when burial actually took place, it was too generally conducted in the most indecorous and brutal manner;—while the tombs of the most renowned characters were, in many instances, despoiled and ravaged either from the base hope of plunder, or the phrensy of political enthusiasm. M. Gouvé, in the poem before us, laments the barbarous taste of his countrymen, and the ruin which has thus overwhelmed the peaceful abodes of the great and the good. The whole is written with considerable pathos and animation. With the following verses we have been particularly pleased, and shall endeavour to translate them, that we may extend some part of our pleasure to those who may not understand the original.

‘ On se sent agrandir au tombeau d’un grand homme !
Les arts m’en sont garans ; des morts que l’on renomme,
Dans le bronze vivant, dans le marbre animé,
Ils rendront tous les traits à l’univers charmé.
Mais ce n’est point assez pour le cœur qui les aime :
Leurs images, hélas ! ne seront point eux-mêmes.
C’est eux, c’est leurs débris, que nous voulons trouver.
Aux pieds de leurs tombeaux nous aimions à rêver.
Là, du recueillement ressentant tous les charmes,
Nous trouvions à la fois des leçons et des larmes :
Il semblait que du fond de ces cercueils fameux
Une voix nous criât—“ Illustrez-vous comme eux.”
Voilà l’illusion que nous avons perdue.
Vous tous, que pleure encore la patrie éperdue,
Consolez-vous pourtant, si vos corps mutilés,
Loin de leurs monumens, languissent exilés ;
Bannis de vos cercueils, et non de votre gloire,
Vous restez dans nos cœurs, et dans notre mémoire.
Là, se sont retranchés vos débris immortels ;
Là, se sont relevés vos tombeaux, vos autels ;
Et, contre les pervers soulevant tous les ages,
Vous immortalisez jusqu’à leurs vils outrages.’

‘ Ourselfes grow great beside the great man’s tomb ;
Art leagues with art to guard the hallow’d gloom ;

* See Appendix to Critical Review, vol. xxxiv. p. 516.

The breathing brass, the marble boldly warm,
 Still give the world each venerated form.
 But, ah ! can this suffice to those who love ?
 No—'tis their statues, not their selves, we prove :
 Their selves, their ruins, still the heart would find,
 And pause and ponder o'er the grave assign'd ;
 With fond remembrance to the past return,
 Shed precious tears, and precious lessons learn :
 For, from their tombs, a voice with hollow sound
 Thus seems to speak—" Like us be virtuous found."
 Such is the fond illusion now that fails !
 But ye whose worth your country yet bewails,
 Be this your solace : Though your limbs may lie
 Far from their destin'd tombs, and native sky,
 Torn from your graves, but not from glory torn,
 Here, in our hearts, our memories, are ye borne :
 Here your immortal ruins we re-blend ;
 Here rise your tombs, your altars re-ascend,
 Against your foes confederate every age,
 And e'en eternise their barbarian rage.'

The fifth line from the close cannot but strongly remind us of Pope's epitaph upon Gay, and constitutes a sort of parallelism which is often by too fastidious critics mistaken for a copy.

' IX. On the Opinions of different Philosophers and celebrated Writers of Antiquity concerning the Ancient Republics. By M. Bitaubé.' *Memoir* the third and last. This paper is a continuation of M. Bitaubé's ' *Observations on the first two Books of the Politics of Aristotle,*' printed in the second volume of the present class, and noticed by ourselves in the Appendix to vol. xxxiv. p. 521. The republics more particularly examined in the article before us are Lacedæmon, Crete, Carthage, Athens, and the Achæan state ; and the writers principally consulted, besides Aristotle, are Plato, Plutarch, Xenophon, Polybius, and Thucydides. Concerning the Spartan republic, he seems sufficiently to have vindicated it, though without intending to do so, against the severe and exaggerated accusations of his colleague M. Levesque, which have just fallen within the range of our consideration. The reason, however, is obvious. M. Levesque has described it almost exclusively from Aristotle, who sacrificed its constitution at the shrine of that of Athens, from a wish to obtain popularity in this latter city ; while M. Bitaubé, discrediting on this very account the statement of the Stagiritæ, adheres with equal partiality to the more favourable narration of Polybius. Upon his account of the other republics here enumerated, we have nothing particular to observe. All of them, he concludes, though founded by celebrated characters, present nothing more 'than the infant school of republican in-

stitutions: yet the cradle of liberty must ever have attractions in the eye of a philosopher. If he find, among these different states, many laws imperfect, he will perceive others highly useful, and will witness civil institutions in every respect worthy of remark.

‘X. Second Memoir on the Colours and Dyes of the Ancients. By M. Ameilhon.’ The former memoir of this ingenious philosopher was printed in the first volume published by the present class, and noticed in our Appendix to vol. xxxii. p. 537. Our author there observed that the art of dyeing consisted of three principal operations; first, in thoroughly cleansing the substance to be dyed, and in freeing it from every foreign matter which might preclude it from imbibing the dye; secondly, in disposing it, by particular compositions, to receive into its pores the colouring principle, and to retain it when introduced; thirdly, in preparing the colouring bath into which it was to be plunged, and in working it according to the rules of art. The first of these three divisions of his subject, M. Ameilhon has sufficiently treated in the memoir just referred to: in the present he enters into a consideration of the two remaining; and we shall briefly attend him in his inquiries. He believes that the ancients were acquainted with the use of mordants from a very early period; and in this we fully coincide, though we cannot indubitably trace the existence of such a custom in the passage which M. Ameilhon has quoted from Plato as demonstration of the fact*. Pliny†, indeed, speaks more to the purpose; and the Greek manuscripts treated of by Fabricius seem to decide the question. The mordants employed were alum, which is perpetually spoken of as an article in dyeing by both Greek and Roman writers, cerusse, and verdegrise; the two latter of which, however, are rather dyes themselves than erosives. Pliny also makes mention of the frequent use of the gall-nut, the root of the wild vine, the rhus sylvestris, and several other austere and astringent as well as alterant substances.

The mineral acids, which constitute so large and important an article in modern dyeing, are unquestionably of modern application alone: they were not even known to the ancients, who, in a variety of instances, instead of these substances, had recourse to highly concentrated vinegar, and the juice of citrons. M. Ameilhon candidly confesses, however, that, while he finds repeated mention of these vegetable acids among both Greeks and Romans, he cannot trace them to have been employed in their dyeing manufactories. It is nevertheless certain that they employed alkalies; for we find express mention, in a variety of in-

* Οὐρανὸν ποθεῖν—ὅτι οἱ βασιλεῖς, &c. De Republ. lib. iv.

† Candida vela postquam attrivēre, illinuntur non coloribus, sed colorem fortibus medicamentis.

stances, of the use of urine, lime, and nitre; or natrum; the last of which was unquestionably a vegetable of this class, and is asserted by Theophrastus, who merely follows the definition of Aristotle, to have been a salt educed from the ashes of burnt wood. They were also acquainted with sal ammoniac, and with the means of extracting tartar from the leys of austere wines. Of the application of these substances, as at present used, we have, however, no decided proofs; but the ingenuity that would point out the mode of obtaining them, in all probability determined their utility and appropriation.

‘XI. Memoir on two Latin Inscriptions, and on Opobalsamum, which is the modern Balsam of Mecca. By M. Mongez.’—The inscriptions referred to were found by M. Ribou, in the neighbourhood of Bourg, in the department of the Ain, who sent copies of them to the National Institute. The first is as follows:

MARITVM COL AEG P
TIAC OPOBALS AD CLAR

The second thus,

MARITVM LEWDDDES D
POBALSAMATVM AD ASPR

M. Mongez, dissatisfied with the explanation of M. Ribou, who conceives that they are designed to express the attachment of a wife for her husband, who was one of the Leudes highly celebrated in the French and German provinces, pursues a clue antecedently offered by count Caylus, and contends that they were merely inscriptions or labels of oculists of the fourth or fifth century, who, to warrant the genuineness of their medicines, applied to every preparation its appropriate impression, and had it engraved on such pieces of stone. In this interpretation he is countenanced by a similar kind of engraving dug up at Gloucester, and thus explained by Chishull in his dissertation on a medal discovered at Ephesus. He therefore deciphers them thus; believing that both refer to the same oculist:

MARITVM COLLYRIVM AEGYPT
TIACVM OPOBALSAMATVM AD CLARITATEM.
MARITVM LEWDDDES D
OPOBALSAMATVM AD ASPRITVDINEM.

In plain English ‘Maritum’s Balsamic Collyrium of Egypt, for clearing the sight.’ ‘The Balsam of Maritum Lewddes for dryness of the interior part of the eye-lids.’ This ‘dryness of the interior part of the eye-lids’—*sécheresse de l’intérieur des paupières*—should rather perhaps be rendered ‘for correcting acrid humors of the eye.’ After all, our author considerably fails in interpreting the word *Maritum*, which, he admits, ought to be in the genitive case, and refers both this ano-

nal, and his incapability of resolving the additional D at the end of the first line of the second inscription, to the gross corruption of the Latin language in the fourth and fifth centuries, the imagined epoch of these inscriptions, interwoven as it was with German, Flemish, and French. This, however, is completely to cut the knot instead of to untie it, and is to allow a latitude of interpretation that would enable us to explain any inscription in any way we might chuse. *Maritum*, moreover, is not only, *in his opinion*, in the nominative case, but *opobalsamatum*, which, in both instances, is obviously an adjective, requires in the latter a substantive to be connected with it. It is highly probable that as COL means collyrium, D may intend *decoctum*, or some other preparation of opobalsamum having the same letter for its initial; which will then just give us the substantive we are in want of. LEWDES is obviously in the plural number, and seems to intimate that the medicine was the property of more than one branch of the family, and was perhaps a co-partnership concern: but if LEWDES be plural, so also must MARITUM, and we then obtain, allowing it to be of the third declension, the very genitive case which the construction requires. M. Mongez may probably be obliged to us for these hints. The memoir closes with a history of opobalsamum, extracted principally from the writings of Theophrastus, Dioscorides, and Pliny, and, in more modern times, of Du Lobel.

‘XII. On the Construction of the Dome of the Madonna della Salute, at Venice, compared with the Dome of the Invalides, at Paris. By M. Raymond.’ The superb church of the Madonna della Salute was erected about the middle of the seventeenth century, agreeably to the plan and under the superintendence of Baldassar Longhena; the church of the Invalides, or rather the dome of that church, about half a century afterwards, under the direction of Jules Hardouin Mansart. We cannot, however, follow M. Mongez in the present comparison, for want of his plates, which amount to not less than seven, and are essentially necessary to the illustration of his subject.

‘XIII. Report on the Means of enabling the whole Body of Spectators, of whatever Number they may consist, to hear the Orations and Music of National Feasts. By M. Mongez.’ The national feasts of France have, in general, been so numerous, that not a hundredth part of the spectators, nor indeed any excepting those situated in the immediate vicinity of the national altar, could hear any thing that occurred. M. Mongez was particularly struck with this inconvenience at the pompous celebration of the funeral of general Hoche, whose *éloge* constituted the most interesting part of the ceremony. He instantly thought of some means to remedy this evil, and shortly afterwards communicated his plan to the present class of the National Institute, requesting the appointment of a commission.

to investigate its advantages. The commission was appointed accordingly; and the report before us contains the result of its researches. M. Mongez first endeavoured to prove to his colleagues of the commission, that no scheme, of which the ancients were possessed, was able to carry the voice of an orator beyond the common limits of discriminate speech: that something might have been gained by the art of modulation, as taught by the *phonaſci* or professors of modulated sounds; but that the speaking-trumpets, said to have been introduced within the masks of public dramatists, never existed, and never could have been employed. He then advanced the two following propositions; 1st. That the orations which should be spoken at the national altar should be pronounced at the same time by other orators disposed, at equal distances, among the spectators, and that all should begin at the same moment by means of appropriate signs. 2d. That different orchestras should execute, in the same manner, the vocal and instrumental music which should be performed at the national altar. The commission reduced both these propositions to experiment, and found that in every respect they answered the purpose proposed: that the different voices and bands of music did not interfere with each other; and that, when situated in the direct centre of the space between two or more pulpits or orchestras, in which each might be equally caught, they heard that alone, or at least distinctly alone, to which their right or left ear was principally inclined, while the opposite catenation of sounds produced no discord whatsoever. We are surprised that in this report no notice should have been taken of the magnificent commemorations of Handel at Westminster Abbey, of the immense volume of modulated sounds which was produced, and the immense concourse of spectators who attended.

‘XIV. On the History and Process of Polytypes, and Stereotypes. By M. Camus.’ The terms monotypes, homotypes, polytypes, and stereotypes, have been used perhaps of late years without any great degree of accuracy; and M. Camus begins his memoir with a more precise definition of their respective meanings; reducing the whole, however, at length to two classes alone, *polytypes* and *stereotypes*; *monotypes* and *homotypes* being merged in the generic term of *polytypes*. His history extends to all the different varieties of printing and engraving with which we are acquainted, whether by the use of wood or metals, whether by fixed or movable types, block-printing, single types, or types with matrices. In the course of this history we find ample justice done to our own countryman William Ged, whose curious edition of Sallust in small twelves, published at Edinburgh in 1739, excited universal attention and applause. In the title of the book he tells us it was printed *non typis mobilibus, ut vulgo fieri solet, sed tabellis seu laminis fusiis*. Our author glances, in the course of his history, at the

names and labours of the most eminent typographers who succeeded Ged, and endeavoured to improve upon his principle; he pays particular attention to the assiduous ingenuity of Hoffman and Herhan, and closes with the beautiful stereotype publications of Didot the father and son. He has introduced into the body of his memoir exemplars of several different typographies, as well as vignettes. We are surprised, however, to find that, in alluding to the use of wood, he has taken no notice of the perfection to which wooden cuts have of late been carried among ourselves by a variety of ingenious artists, and especially by the Bewickes.

‘XV. Addition to the Memoir on a German Book, The Teürdanck, printed p. 170—211 of the present Volume. By the same.’ Of the exploits of sir Teürdanck, and the Memoir here referred to, we gave an account in our appendix to vol. xxxvi. p. 525. M. Camus in the present paper states his confirmed conviction that the edition of this poem of 1517 was printed with movable characters; and adds that he has since met with two additional exemplars of the edition of 1517, the one on vellum, with plates illuminated in colours and gold; the other, on paper, with unilluminated plates. He has also met with one more exemplar of the edition of 1519, which is printed upon paper.

‘XVI. Additions to the Memoir on Polytypes and Stereotypes, inserted in the present Volume, so far as relates to Hoffman and his Polytypes. By M. Camus.’ These additions have been collected by M. Camus since his Memoir was printed, and render the history of this renowned typographer more full and perfect. They contain, however, no incident of sufficient importance to induce us to extract any thing from the memoir.

With this paper the volume closes. And having now conducted our readers through three volumes of each department, comprehending not less than nine of the entire productions of the National Institute, we have enabled them to appreciate for themselves, with some degree of correctness, the portion of merit they possess. We have, moreover, offered a summary view of our own estimation of their value at the conclusion of our analysis of the second volumes, from which we see very little reason to differ at present. The volumes we have just closed exhibit the same paucity of contributors, and the same paucity of subjects: their articles are almost equally prolix, and their language not much more precise. The fourth set of volumes have reached us; and we shall commence them in our next Appendix.

ART. IV.—*Annales de Chymie.* (Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 534.)

Annals of Chemistry. No. 121—126 inclusive.

THE 121st number commences the forty-first volume, published in 1802, and the first article is an important one: it is the report of the Commissioners of the National Institute on the Experiments of M. Volta. The commissioners were, Laplace, Coulomb, Hallé, Mongez, Fourcroy, Vauquelin, Pelletou, (probably Pelletier), Charles, Briffon, Sebatier, Guyon, and Biot. The report is a masterly one, and explains, very satisfactorily, the phenomena of the Galvanic pile from the accumulation of electricity. We shall give a very short abstract of the foundation of the authors' reasoning.

‘The principal fact, on which all the others depend, is the following. If two different insulated metals, with their own quantity of electricity only, be placed in contact, on separation their state of electricity is different; one is positive, and the other is negative. This difference, which is inconsiderable on each contact, when successively accumulated in an electrical condenser, is strong enough to affect very sensibly an electrometer. The action is not exercised at a distance, but only on contact, and continues as long as the contact continues: its intensity, however, is not the same in all.’

On these principles, the commissioners explain, with great precision, the phenomena of the Galvanic pile, and engage in some very minute and curious calculations on the subject, which it is impossible for us to follow. Why have we not a judicious abstract of what is known on Galvanism in our own language?

M. Thenard's ‘Observations on the Combinations of tartarous Acid with salifiable Bases, and on the Properties of the Salts which result,’ are also very valuable. He shows that tartrites of pot-ash unite with different earths, with metals, and with ammonia, forming triple salts. These salts are more or less soluble; which is the reason why no precipitate ensues on adding tartrites of pot-ash to calcareous baritic or strontian solutions, or their salts. Lime appears to have the greatest affinity to the tartarous acid, and magnesia less than the alkalis. Our author also found that the tartrite of pot-ash would unite with all the metallic tartrites, and form with them bodies wholly peculiar; the greater number of which are not decomposed by alkalis or alkaline carbonates. The tartar emetic, which is one of the triple salts, is rendered uncertain in its effects on the human body by the tartrite of lime, tartrite of pot-ash, acidulous tartrite of pot-ash, and its proportion of water. To avoid these causes of uncertainty, the oxyd of antimony must be in excess, and the

crystallisation must be carefully conducted, selecting the tetrahedral and octahedral crystals. It appears, from these experiments, that the tartrites of pot-ash dissolve many of the metallic oxyds, as well as alumine and the carbonate of alumine: consequently, in such combinations, no precipitate ensues on adding an alkali, as the oxyd is dissolved by the tartrite of pot-ash. The tartrites of soda and ammonia may also form triple salts; and some earthy and metallic tartrites are in like manner capable of a mutual union. The same property seems to be extended to oxalates and nitrates. In some cases, there is reason to suspect the existence of quadruple salts of this kind.

Some English discoveries, from the Philosophical Magazine and Mr. Nicholson's Journal, as communicated in the Journal Britannique, follow; and we next find a judicious memoir from a young chemist, M. Darocq, 'on the new Combination discovered in Zaffre,' which M. Brugnatelli considered to be the cobaltic acid. No such acid, however, seems to exist; and what deceived the Italian chemist appears to have been the acid of arsenic combined with oxyd of cobalt.

M. Van Marum next describes the method by which he succeeded in decomposing water by means of the electric spark; and this account is followed by a description of a stove on the principles of the Swedish chimney. These are incapable of abridgement; but a historic account of the various contrivances to warm rooms at a slight expense is curious and interesting.

The number concludes with an abstract of a German work, entitled 'A Description of a new Galvanic chemical Apparatus, and the Experiments in which it has been employed. By M. Simon, Professor of the Academy of Architecture at Berlin.' The description depends on the plates.

The 122d number commences with 'Observations on the Method of ascertaining the Strength and Purity of Pot-ash,' a subject of considerable importance to the manufacturer. It is not easy to abridge the directions, which are sufficiently clear and explicit; and we only need to add, that the best mode of ascertaining the quantity of pure alkali in the common pot-ash is by the means of the nitrate of strontian.

The memoir which follows is 'on the Use of Madder, followed by a simple and certain Process, to obtain the Adrianople Red of the greatest Beauty and Solidity of Colour.' It is well known that earths and metallic oxyds have more or less the property of attracting and retaining the colouring particles of vegetable and animal substances. Alumine, however, and the metallic oxyds, do not retain the colouring particles just mentioned, with equal force. Those of madder adhere most strongly, and the others follow in order, commencing with those whose attraction is strongest—grains of kermes, cochineal, logwood,

yellow Indian wood, gaude, quercitron, fernambouc, red Indian wood, grains of Avignon, &c. Galls, sumach, and the other astringent substances, act chiefly by means of the gallic acid, and, with respect to their solidity, may be placed after madder. The particular process for giving the greatest vivacity and solidity of the madder colours can be read with advantage only in the memoir itself.

‘Abstract of a Report made at a Conference of the Council of Mines on Oxyds of Manganese, capable of being used in the Arts.’ The greater part of this report is local, and on the relative value of the manganese of France, compared with that of Germany and Piedmont. In some respects the Piedmont manganese is preferable, particularly in preparing the oxygenated muriatic acid; in the glass-works, that of France and Germany is equally good. The processes, however, by which the superior advantages of the different oxyds of manganese are ascertained, merit the attention of the English chemists. There appears to be no method of adding to its proportion of oxygen.

‘An Abstract of the Explanation of a new Method of separating the Silver alloyed with Copper in counterfeit Money, by M. Napióné.’ It is well known that copper which contains less than one half of silver cannot be submitted with advantage to cupellation; and the other method of liquation is troublesome as well as inconvenient. Our author, reflecting on the strong attraction of copper for silver, thought of separating in this way a part of the copper, till the remainder would be rich enough to allow of cupellation. He succeeded in this attempt, and separated small portions of silver from copper at about one-fifth of the expense which would have been incurred by liquation.

A Report made to the Institute ‘on the Establishment formed by MM. Anfrye and Lecour to extract Copper and Tin from the Scorix of Bell-Metal.’ The authors of this report are Guyon, Deyeux, Vauquelin, and le Sage; nor should we omit observing, that no foreign communications are more interesting than these academic reports. They are generally satisfactory on the subjects entrusted to their care; and the authors seldom fail to render their papers valuable by collateral information of importance. This remark is suggested by the article before us, which, though seemingly of little value, will contribute greatly to the reader’s instruction. The scorix in question have been usually considered as of trivial estimation, and have been sold to repair high-ways. The mode employed to render them valuable is to oxydate the tin which thus combines with the copper; after which the latter is separated by washing. The tin is reduced by $\frac{1}{4}$ part of charcoal; and precision in this proportion is found to be important; and the tin is said to be equal to English tin. The grain is close, and of a greyish colour, like pure tin; with

a sixth part of antimony, the colour is less vivid, the crackling less considerable, and the metal is brittle; while the Malacca tin bends without breaking, and is not granulated. The tin from the bell-metal was indeed found to contain a little copper, and the East Indian tin was brought to resemble it, by adding $\frac{1}{12}$ of zinc; but the change appeared to be really owing to lead. A singular fact is communicated, on the authority of MM. Volta and Brugnatelli, viz. that a combination of zinc with tin may be immediately discovered by its becoming useful in the Galvanic pile. A union of zinc with tin is particularly advantageous in forming the plates, as the metal is of a silver colour, and does not oxydate so soon as pure zinc. The silver paper of Germany is covered with a mixture of this kind, and becomes fit, in this way, for Galvanic purposes. The Malacca tin, in our authors' opinion, is much purer than the English. We know not how their tin was procured; but we have seen many specimens of English tin even more pure than the Indian. The latter certainly possesses no lead. The tin sold in France contains 0.03 of copper, 0.01 of lead; the refined tin of MM. Anfrye and Lecour contains 0.01 of lead and $\frac{1}{1250}$ of copper. The oxyd of tin procured by these artisans is also found to be useful in polishing steel. The commissioners boast that this manufactory *restores to commerce* more than 1500 *milliers* of tin, and two millions of copper: but plunder must have its bounds; and, when *churches* have no longer *bells*, MM. Anfrye and Lecour must shut up their elaboratory.

A note 'on the Hydrosulphure of Soda' is valuable. Berthollet long since informed us that sulphurated hydrogen had many properties of acids. The mother waters, after extracting the carbonat of soda, from a ley furnished by the manufactory of MM. Payen and Bourlier, the object of which is not mentioned, yielded, after some rest, a white transparent salt, crystallised in rectangular tetraedral prisms, terminated by pyramids of four sides. Some crystals were octoedral. This is not the shape of the crystals of carbonat of soda; and, on examination, the salt appeared to be a hydrosulphure of soda, from the manufacturers not employing a sufficient quantity of lime to saturate all the sulphur, which arises from the decomposition of sulphat of soda by charcoal.

'Abstract of a Memoir containing some Galvanic Experiments, by A. C. Gerboin.' The object of these experiments is to establish a closer analogy between Galvanism and electricity, by showing, in the effects of the former, some traces of attraction and repulsion.

The idea of earths and alkalis being compounds seems to be revived by a chemist of Freyberg: but no considerable progress has been made in the analysis. M. Lampedius, of the same place, was able to produce ammonia by adding water to crude or

cream of tartar, after it had been calcined till it exhibited no traces of smoke or flame. The experiment may be repeated by again moistening the same calx, and will succeed with the acidulous oxalate of pot-ash, but not with charcoal mixed mechanically with pot-ash.

The observations of M. Ritter 'on some Effects of the Electrical Fluid set in motion by Volta's Pile,' are, we fear, too fanciful. One wire is said to give heat, the other cold; one to give pain, the other to take it away; one to excite the sensation of blue, the other of red. M. Gerboin, in a former article, claims the priority of having observed the phenomena of attraction and repulsion in this fluid.

An advertisement of the *disinfecting* and preservative Bottles mentioned by M. Guyton de Morveau follows. They contain an extemporaneous oxygenated muriatic acid. On opening the phial, the vital air exhales, and the person is surrounded by a pure atmosphere. The virtue will continue many years, and may be preserved in all climates. The ingredients are given quantities of common salt, black oxyd of manganese, and nitric acid. The theory is sufficiently obvious.

The 123d number commences with the abstract of a Memoir, by Mr. Kennedy, inserted in Mr. Nicholson's Journal, announcing the discovery of soda and muriatic acid in some stones. It appears probable that this memoir has been communicated to the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and may again become the subject of our notice; but, as we cannot at present turn to the part we have received of that respectable Society's Transactions, and as we shall soon be called to consider the fundamental question on which the whole rests, we must at present remark that Mr. Kennedy's object is to connect the whinstones with lavas, and to point out the existence of soda and muriatic acid in the former, in proportions nearly the same as occur in the latter. We allow the facts: but he has omitted one material part of the question, *viz.* the comparative aerial contents. This is the great fundamental point of difference between lavas and traps which have not experienced the action of fire.

Memoir 'on a native Phosphat of Iron mixed with Manganese,' by M. Vauquelin. It has been said that nature has churlishly denied to France her share of valuable minerals. In this memoir it is one object of the author to show that the imputation is unjust; yet he describes a mineral, of which it is not easy, at the first view, to make any use. It contains, in 100 parts, 31 of oxyd of iron, 27 of phosphoric acid, and 42 of oxyd of manganese. From its brilliant colours, it may be of service for glazing porcelain, or perhaps for enamels.

'Observations on the acetous and acetic Acids,' by M. Darroq. This young chemist, whose talents we have already extolled, endeavours to show that the only difference between

these acids consists in the proportion of water and a mucous substance, which exists in a greater proportion in the former. If this be true, there will be acetats, and not acetites.

'A Treatise on the dangerous or ataxic (irregular) Fevers,' by J. L. Alibert. Of this treatise there is an abstract by M. Cadet. We have already noticed the work, in which we found little to praise. We return to it on account of the botanic description of different species of cinchona which we omitted in our former article. The *C. officialis*, he remarks, is very scarce, as well at Santa Fè as in Peru. It is of an orange colour, highly aromatic, without any sensible astringency, 'infallible in ataxic fevers.' The red bark, described as very common, is more astringent and less aromatic: the yellow bark seems to show little astringency in the mouth, and is said to be more weak in its powers than the other species; but is commended by Rutis, an observer on the spot, as more efficacious in checking any tendency to decomposition in the fluids, and less dangerous, than the red or the orange bark, as of a more laxative quality. The third is now in this country—the *C. alba ovali folio*: it appears to be a bitter only, with little astringency, and its virtues are more easily extracted by water than those of the other species. The botanists of Peru, we are informed, prefer the bark of the trunk and the larger branches, that of old rather than of young trees. If kept free from moisture, its activity, it is said, increases with time. After all, he tells us that we are not acquainted with the true kina, which is a leguminous plant, and called, in Peru, corteza of the cascara of Loxa.

M. Delaville's 'Observations on the Sap of the Asparagus and Cabbage' offer nothing interesting, or that will admit of any application.

M. Dezcroizilles describes an accident which happened in consequence of breaking a bottle in which phosphorus was immersed in water, by freezing. A sudden thaw freed the phosphorus from its icy coat; and it took fire. The terra Japonica, we are told, *in a letter from London*, contains a large proportion of tan; and it is supposed that it may be imported with advantage for the use of the tanner. We are informed also that the Galvanic fluid hastens the process of both acid and putrefactive fermentations. Other Galvanic experiments are mentioned in the same article, but are neither new nor important.

Memoir 'on the Gluten,' by C. L. Cadet. The author's object is the vegetable gluten, which, we know, is of an animal nature. When fresh, it is insoluble in alcohol, and only becomes so after it has undergone an acid fermentation. When dissolved by alcohol, it may be precipitated again by water; and the solution, inspissated, becomes a useful varnish. The fermented gluten, diluted with alcohol, unites with colouring matters, so that they may be spread on the smoothest bodies.

This colour dries fast, gives no bad smell, and may be washed without injury. Vegetable colours unite with it more perfectly than mineral; and the gluten, with lime, forms a very solid adhesive lute.

‘Experiments on the tanning Principle, and Reflexions on the Art of Tanning,’ by M. Marat Guillot. This paper scarcely admits of an abstract, and is not very interesting. We perceive, in the minutes of the Session of the College of Pharmacy, which follow, that M. Proust considers the method that he formerly recommended for separating the tanin, by means of muriat of tin, as insufficient; and the other processes which he has tried are attended with other inconveniences.

The 124th number, the first of the forty-second volume, begins with an account of ‘Experiments on Galvanism, made with an Apparatus in the Manner of Volta, composed of forty Strata of metallic Plates of six Inches Diameter,’ by M. Simon. The subject is not at present concluded; and the experiments are so miscellaneous and numerous, that they do not admit of abridgement.

Report, by M. Guyton, ‘on an Instrument designed to point out the Purity of Gold.’ This is a hygrometer, resembling, in its principle, Mr. Nicholson’s instrument. It is adapted for gold only, and is, in M. Guyton’s opinion, correct and convenient.

‘On the Hydrosulphure of Pot-ash,’ by M. Vauquelin. As our limits would not permit us to copy the properties of the hydrosulphure of soda, we must pass over those of the present salt. The crystals are nearly similar; but the solids of the latter have sometimes six sides. These two salts are distinguished by adding a few drops of their solutions to equal quantities of the solution of alumine in sulphuric acid. The pot-ash produces a crystallisation of the alum immediately; the soda has no such effect.

‘Observations on the Use of Oxygen in the Cure of Tetanus,’ by M. Sarazin, Surgeon, of Paris. Two cases are related very clearly, and the effects of the remedy were striking: each patient, however, was much exhausted; one by previous suppurations, the other by a long-continued disease. In the former, nitric acid was given by the mouth, and in a clyster; in the latter, the oxygenated ointment was rubbed in, and, when the patient could swallow, oxygenated water given for drink.

‘Efflorescences of Sulphat of Magnesia observed in the Quarries of Montmartre’ by M. Socquet, Professor of Chemistry at Chambéry. The quarries of Montmartre are, as is well known, selenitic. The separation of the acid, in M. Socquet’s opinion, is favoured by the presence of iron, which is chiefly found where those efflorescences appear. Our author imitates the process in his experiments; and this view of the subject, he thinks, will explain why schistose pyrites, containing much magnesia

and lime, afford, in the act of decomposition, Epsom salt exclusively, without a particle of selenite or alum, if the magnesia be in sufficient quantity. In this way, sulphat of magnesia may, he thinks, be prepared artificially with advantage.

'Objections to a Proposition of Lavoisier on the Evaporation of Fluids,' by Dr. Carradon of Prato. Lavoisier considered that the form of bodies, whether solid, fluid, or gaseous, depended on the proportion of caloric, augmented to such a degree, in the last instance, as to counteract the pressure of the atmosphere. Our author objects that he has not taken into the account the affinity of bodies for caloric. Some, as the fat oils, have no affinity, and for this principle will burn or be decomposed, but will never ascend in vapour.

'On the Oisanite or Anatase,' by Vauquelin. This is a stone found near Oisan, in Dauphiny, which Haüy, who admits no appellation from the place where the fossil rises, has changed to anatase, which signifies that its form is elevated. It is white, blue, or a reddish brown, or greenish; its crystal a very sharp octaedron. M. Vauquelin thought it metallic, and supposed that he had found a new metal: it appears, however, to be an ore of titanite.

'A literal Translation of Observations on the Kermes Mineral, or the Red Hydrofulphurated Oxid of Antimony. By M. Cavezzali, chief Apothecary to the civil Hospital at Lodi.'—We cannot follow this reasoning at length. It is well known that, in this preparation, the oxyd of antimony is united to the sulphurated hydrogen with a little sulphur. Our author found, that the metal should not be oxydated in excess, and that the alkali should be in greater proportion. He consequently augmented the proportions of the nitrat and acidulous tartrite of pot-ash; recommending a pound of the sulphur of antimony, two pounds and a half of nitrat of pot-ash, as much tartar, with six ounces of sulphur. The access of air and of a strong light is highly injurious.

The next article is 'on a superoxygenated Ore of Lead,' bought at the sale of M. Aubert, analysed by M. Vauquelin, and extracted from the 63d number of the Journal of Mines. This mineral contains about 0.39 of oxydated arsenic and iron, with about 0.22 of oxydated lead.

M. Proust's memoir, formerly alluded to, follows, in which the difficulty of separating the tanin, in a pure state, is explained. He adds the different forms in which this principle appears in different bodies, which he styles species, though evidently owing to other combinations.

The 125th number commences with 'The Analysis of the Diaspore,' so called by Haüy, because, when heated by the flame of a candle, it throws out sparks, which float in the air,

with the brilliant colours of the iris. M. Vauquelin could find no other ingredient than alumine; but the quantity analysed, was small. In analysis, it resembles the telefia; but the physical properties so greatly differ, that the diaspore must contain some other principle, perhaps water.

‘Experiments on Charcoal, by MM. Clement and Deformes.’ We have noticed the discordant opinions on this subject in the present article. Our authors agree in general with Mr. Cruickshank; and contend, with great force of reason, that charcoal contains no hydrogen. They conclude, that fluids inclosed in all the different gasses, evaporate with equal celerity in some circumstances; that charcoal gives out no water in evaporating, and consequently contains no oxygen: its oxygen, they think, must be equal in different pieces, as the carbonic acid is the same. At a high temperature, sulphur and charcoal unite. In the result, which, in different circumstances, is a fluid, a solid, or a vapour, there are no traces of hydrogen. The oxydated gas of charcoal contains no hydrogen; and the authors admit that the carbonated sulphur is not a new discovery.

‘New Experiments on the Counterpoison of Arsenic, by C. Regnault;’ an abstract by M. Deyeux. This is a thesis, and a valuable one. M. Navier’s counterpoisons were found to be useless: the soluble sulphures of iron they were unable to prepare in the manner directed. The sulphurated hydrogen, recommended by Berthollet and Fourcroy, destroyed the effects of the arsenic, when it was in a liquid state, and had been previously digested with the sulphurated hydrogen. When emitted separately, it was less valuable, and, when the dry oxyd was given, useless. In a metallic state, arsenic was not poisonous; but it soon oxydates in the air. The *native* yellow sulphur of arsenic is harmless; but the artificial orpiment is poisonous; for, in the former, the metal is not oxydated; but usually it is so in the latter. After the poison is swallowed, oil seems, from our author’s experiments, to be injurious; and he recommends mucilaginous drinks, or warm-water only. The signs of death from arsenic, are, he thinks, equivocal. The only remedy is free vomiting; and, as some cannot discharge by the stomach, mucilaginous drinks may, he suspects, be conveyed by a hollow bougie, passed through the œsophagus, and pumped up by a syringe.

‘Abstract of a ‘Notice’ on different Processes proper to correct the Salts of some Kinds of Iron and Steel, by M. Levasseur.’ We find nothing particularly new or interesting in this article.

The propolis, by some called virgin wax, was found by M. Vauquelin to consist chiefly of a resin, with a little wax, and some vegetable and animal *débris*; but different specimens should be

examined. It is sometimes used as a lacquer, but is little known or employed.

'Some Hints on the different Combinations of Cobalt with Oxygen, followed by Observations on many Ammoniac-metallic Salts, by M. Thenard,' follow. The various colours observed, on adding an alkali to a solution of cobalt, are well known. Our author could never discover the rose colour: but he distinctly saw the blue, olive, puce colour, and black; and he shows that they depend on different proportions of oxygen. The triple metallic salts, viz. the ammoniac-sulphats, nitrats, and muriats, occur, in his opinion, with cobalt, nickel, zinc, lead, tin, copper, and silver. The fixed alkalis will not, in the same way, form a triple combination. Those just mentioned are imperfectly crystallisable.

M. Proust, professor of chemistry, has published, in a Spanish journal, a criticism on M. Foucroy's late system. This article Foucroy has translated with notes, in the 26th number. The remarks he receives with great good humour, and promises to attend to them in another edition. Some short notes are added.

M. Berthollet replies to MM. Clement and Deformes: but we find nothing that we can extract with advantage.

M. Parmentier's 'Observations on the Sugar of the Beet-Root' are very judicious. He shows that sugar cannot be extracted, with any moderate advantage, from European plants, compared with what the sugar-cane yields. Some observations on the other saccharine vegetables and fruits are subjoined.

'Observations on an aquatic Insect, by M. Prevost.' This insect forms a new genus, and is styled *Cherocephalus*, from the four fins attached to the head when young; which afterwards disappear. The chief observation of importance is, that a silver dish is fatal to it, if the water in which he lives be put in a vessel of this kind. The consequence derived from this fact is, that silver may be anthelmintic. He advises some leaf-silver to be beaten up with water, but not wholly immersed in it, as he found that silver partly wetted renders the water more deleterious than wholly covered. He has not tried this medicine: but he thinks all metals possess in some degree an anthelmintic property.

(To be continued.)

ART. V.—*Recueil de Noms par Ordre alphabétique, &c.*

A Collection of Terms, in an alphabetical Order, applied in Mineralogy to Earths, Stones, Metals and Demi-metals, and Bitumens; with an Abstract of their Natural History, and Synonyms in German, Latin, and English; followed by a Lithological Table, constructed from the Chemical Analyses. A new Edition, corrected, and augmented by the Nomenclature of M. Haüy, by Prince Dimitri de Gallitzin, F.R.S. &c. Brunswick. Folio. Imported by De Boffe.

WHILE the science of mineralogy has extended its bounds beyond whatever the most eager imagination had supposed to be its limits; and while the nomenclature has proceeded, not on one given principle, but from fancied analogies, and the aid of the Greek or Latin languages, according to the predilection of the mineralogist; a collection of terms was at least requisite—a vocabulary, if not a dictionary. We have strongly urged such an attempt in English; but while *our* mineralogists hesitate, we must avail ourselves of the labours of those of the continent. This before us might furnish a very convenient foundation; but we should wish the superstructure to be more extensive. No period can be more favourable than the present, since the works of M. Haüy and M. Brochant form a sort of æra which gives a stable foundation, and since their nomenclature will obtain a more permanent station than the fancies of inferior naturalists.

‘The excellent treatise of mineralogy,’ says the prince de Gallitzin, ‘by M. Haüy, the publication of which I expected in vain for two years, has rendered a new edition of my “Collection” absolutely necessary. It has shown the errors of the former work, and proved it to be wholly inadequate, since the mineralogic nomenclature is completely changed. I determined, without hesitation, on the measure; and resolved also to take this excellent work as my guide, respecting the definition of minerals and their mutual relations.

‘I will not allow myself to add my own opinion of the new nomenclature. It has been appreciated by the learned, many of whom are the abbé’s countrymen. When masters have decided, scholars should be silent. I shall transcribe only that of the crystalline forms, since crystallography is one of the most essential parts of the work in question, *which is not yet so extensively circulated in Germany as to be consulted by those who will read mine.*’

The primitive form of any substance is pointed out by the primitive word added to the name of the species. The secondary forms relate to various circumstances, which we were unable to

detail, from their extent, in our review of the abbé's work, and, for the same reason, cannot enlarge on in this place.

"A Collection of Terms" admits not of abridgement. We have endeavoured to find a specimen which might give an adequate idea of the author's information, of the extent of his compilation, and of some original communications, which are occasionally interspersed. It is difficult, however, to discover an article of this nature, whose limits are, in other respects, suited to our purpose. We shall take one almost at hazard.—

** Méfotype de Haüy.*

* Zeolite of Cronstedt (zeolythe, properly so called.

* Zeolithe in prismatic or pyramidal needles of Lisle.

* Strahliger zeolit of Werner, Lenz, and Emerling,

* Bransestein. Kammspath of the Germans.

* Zeolite of Kirwan.

* Zeolithes figurâ determinatâ of Wallerius.

* The méfotype, of which M. Haüy makes a separate species, is the same substance which Cronstedt, who introduced it to our knowledge, called zeolite, from a kind of ebullition which it shows when exposed to the action of fire. Considered, for a time, as a schorl or a tourmalin, it was at last distinguished and separated from them. But, says M. Haüy, as if its separation with the schorls were still felt, it became, in turn, after its separation, the rallying point for many substances which had only a doubtful relation to it; such as the property of melting in a spongy mass, of coagulating with acids, &c. The subject was so little attended to, that the formation of the coagulum, on dissolving, (which, after being found in the zeolite of Cronstedt, was extended to all others) is perhaps the exclusive property of the méfotype: at least I have in vain attempted to discover it in my trials with different varieties of these minerals.

* The same motives which determined that celebrated philosopher to suppress the term schorl (see the article Amphibolæ), induced him no longer to retain that of zeolithe: he has consequently called it méfotype, which signifies the mean, primitive, form; because its primitive form presents a mean term, between the nuclei of the analcime and the stilbite—two species most frequently confounded with it. He distinguishes three varieties of determinable forms: 1st, Pyramidal méfotype (radiated zeolithe, Strahliger zeolit of Emmerling and Lenz); 2d and 3d, Pointed and octaedral méfotypes.

* The crystals of the first variety belong very decidedly to the zeolite of Cronstedt. The two others M. Haüy has annexed, till further observations warrant a different conduct, on account of their mutual relations from the laws of structure. It was the best judgement he could form from measures taken of objects so small as to elude the precision which certainty requires.

‘The varieties of the indeterminable forms are—1st, *Acicular méfotype* (fibrous zeolite, *safriger zeolit* of Emmerling; to which many mineralogists join the capillary zeolite); 2d, The globular (in globules striated internally from the centre to the circumference); 3d, The amorphous.

‘*Méfotype* is whitish, transparent or translucent: it scratches the calcareous spar; and loses electricity by heat: its refraction is double: its specific gravity 20.833: its fracture a little glassy.

‘The analysis of the pyramidal *méfotype* is among the varieties of the genus ABC.’*

Before we explain the table just referred to, we shall transcribe the passage which relates to schorls. As we cannot return to the abbé Haüy’s work, this will give our readers an idea of his accuracy and precision.

The amphibole of Haüy is the schorl of Datbenton; the genuine hornblende of Werner, Emmerling, and the other German mineralogists; the basaltic hornblend of Kirwan. The passage we shall transcribe is quoted from Haüy.—

‘Natural history perhaps scarcely offers more numerous errors within a narrower compass. The character of fusibility by the blow-pipe, employed with little address, served at first as a connecting link of these pretended schorls.

‘After confounding very different substances, by trusting a property by no means decisive when employed separately, we began to call every new body a schorl, whose crystals, when regular, approached a rhomboidal form; and, when confused, were lengthened inflated prisms, and re-united by bundles. This gave an unfaithful resemblance to the schorls already known, which was taken for a family-likeness. Sometimes, when any fossil occurred unlike what had been formerly seen, it was called a schorl, because it must be something. M. Lagrange, on this occasion, called the schorl the nectarium of mineralogists.’

The tables are peculiarly instructive. It appears, from calculation, that the combinations of the nine known earths with each other (excluding the yttria, as well as metallic, saline, and watery impregnations) amount to 40320, of which scarcely 50 are ascertained. “I leave the reason of this scarcity to be determined by learned naturalists. Does Nature keep them from our view? or does she refuse to produce them?”

A table of the various analyses follows, in which the component parts are pointed out by letters—the predominant ingredient being discriminated by the first letter. The nine earths are marked by the nine first letters of the alphabet.

* It contains 50.24 of flint; 29.30 of alum; 9.46 of lime; 10 of water—(Vauquelin).

We shall transcribe the conclusion.

• We have seen, in the foregoing tables, that flint furnishes the greater number of combinations, and that it is mixed with all the other earths: in many it is the predominant principle. Lime, on the contrary, considered by M. Fourcroy as an alkaline earth, has furnished very few. Is not this an additional proof that the latter originates from marine bodies, and is produced from shells? Its affinity with acids adds weight to the idea. We have scarcely any calcareous earths without some acid, particularly the carbonic: some contain three acids—such as the common opatite (phospholite of Kirwan, the *chaux phosphatée unibinaire* of Haüy)—if the analyses of M. Pelletier be exact. These acids are not accidental, but seem to form a constituent principle.

• Barytes and strontian are in a similar predicament: all the specimens contain carbonic or sulphuric acid; and, though phosphorus can be extracted from some barytic substances, particularly the Bolognian stone, it is not a constituent part. Indeed, their nature is not clearly ascertained; and hence Fourcroy has arranged them with the alkalis.

• Let me offer one question in this place. Flint, as we have seen, admits of every possible combination with alumine, lime, and magnesia: it only refuses its alliance, if the term be admitted, to the other five earths: are not these, then, the truly elementary earths? I know that chemists have called every earth an elementary one, that cannot be reduced to greater simplicity; so that the other five earths may claim this title: yet these naturalists formerly acknowledged as earths those only which constituted the mixed primitive rocks; and the others must, on this supposition, be excluded, for they are only found in some crystals. M. Hoëpfner, indeed, assures us that he has discovered a granite mountain, one of whose ingredients was barytes. This, however, was not a primitive granite; and no other naturalist has seen it; though, on the credit of M. Hoëpfner, M. Saussure has formed a particular genus of granite of this nature. Are not, then, all these earths modifications of the elementary earths, particularly of the siliceous? Are we certain that the elementary earths, in their spontaneous decomposition, by their union with acids, with each other, &c. may not produce new combinations which may display new properties? This question I leave to our philosophers and naturalists: it merits their attention."

If our earnest wish, so often repeated, to obtain a judicious mineralogic dictionary in the English language, be not attended to, let us at least recommend a translation of the present work. The translator must, however, be master of the subject, and of his own language; for the style of prince Galitzin is confused

and inelegant. Notes also will be requisite, to correct some inaccuracies and some mistakes. In its substance, the present collection merits considerable attention; and even at this time, which is nearly twelve months from the publication, little remains to be added.

ART. VI.—*Collection de Mémoires, &c.*

Collection of Memoirs on the Colonies. By V. P. Malouet, formerly Minister of the Colonies and of Marine. 5 Vols. 8vo. (Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 555).

WE have already noticed the first three volumes of these Memoirs*, which were limited to the history and transactions of French and Dutch Guiana: of the two remaining volumes, the former is devoted exclusively to St. Domingo, and the latter to general observations relating to the colonies at large.

Respecting the first, 'it is six-and-twenty years ago,' says our author, in an extensive introduction, 'since the work which composes this volume, and relates to St. Domingo, was completed. It was submitted, in 1775, to a committee of legislation assembled at Versailles, composed of the ancient administrators civil and military. The eternal opposition of those two classes, and the preponderance of the latter, allowed of no useful result from this discussion.—The revolution of 1789,' continues he, 'found the administrators, the colonists, the agents, the tribunals, and the free people of colour, in such a situation that a dissolution of the colonial government was inevitable. It may not be useless, in the present day, to examine what was at that time proposed, to consolidate and reform it. My own views and observations may have appeared hazardous six-and-twenty years ago: but if in this lapse of time they have been justified by experience; if I foresaw from that period the tremendous succession of disorders, of negligences, in an incoherent system, which I then denounced; my reflexions will have acquired the authority of time, and their adoption will perhaps experience less difficulty.'

Many of M. Malouet's observations are entitled to the utmost degree of attention and applause. The following may be useful to ourselves, as applying to other colonies than that of St. Domingo.

'Colonies cannot be governed as are their mother countries; for they have neither the same end nor the same means. If democracy, which has shed so much blood, had even been prac-

titable in France, it was an absurdity, worthy of these latter days, to wish to transport it into the colonies.—Independently of all the abuses which I have denounced in my Memoirs, there existed, and there exists still, a fundamental vice, a germ of destruction, which I have not there sufficiently pointed out, but which has been amply developed by posterior events. The colonial government is not supported, either within or without, by any moral power, by any appropriate political combination; and there is, appertaining to it, a re-union of wishes and of interests far more ready to overthrow than to maintain it.—Oriental despotism has for its support the religion which it sanctions, the soldiery which exists upon it. The Levantines at Algiers, the Mamlukes in Egypt, the men of law and the janissaries in Turkey—these, in conjunction with the Alcoran, are the moral and political powers which succeed in upholding even the worst of all possible governments.—What similar aids has the colonial government to rely upon? None whatever. Discord between the very interests which over-rule it; no superstition which may assist it; a progressive augmentation of the modes and means of its annihilation; deficiency in the forces which protect it: such was the situation of our colonies in their most flourishing state, which we may fix at about the last twenty years which preceded the revolution.

It was in 1775 that our author published his first memoir on slavery and the employment of the negroes in America. We object now, as we objected then, to his principle; for we can never consent that man should brutalise and coerce, or even buy up the liberty of, his fellow man; but we approve of his regulations, so long as the nefarious interests of trade and luxury shall support this iniquitous system. His voyage to Surinam in 1777, of which we have already given some account, made him more sensible of the vices and dangers of the conduct actually pursued. He condemns the mode in which the question of the abolition of the slave-trade was conducted; and we believe that imprudence was too often intermixed with benevolent intention; nor is it improbable that many of the more clamorous partisans were instigated rather by politics than humanity, and politica by no means of the purest character.

‘The friends of the blacks,’ says M. Malouet, ‘constituted, even at this time (1777), a corresponding society in France and England. They profited of our errors to attack our principles; they seized possession of the public opinion, and demanded with much vociferation the emancipation of the negroes. Philanthropic publications were multiplied for ten years: the colonists were enraged, but without taking or provoking any measure of safety; and the government continued a mere spectator of this quarrel. The convocation of the states-general prepared the

last explosion, which it was even yet easy to have prevented; but it was determined that no fault should be omitted, to reach, by the shortest path, the utmost extent of misery. The situation of the people of colour in the colonies had been regulated, as every thing else was, without reflecting what they might become by their multiplication and the possession of estates—without any combination in favour of interests which might be either attacked or defended. In every country in which slavery is established, those of free origin form necessarily the first class; but the enfranchised, while remaining in the second, ought to find a community of interests with the first, which regards them as its auxiliaries: the full measure of absurdity is in placing them at such a distance from the whites, that they may expect to become gainers by becoming their enemies. This is what has been done. Instead of maintaining, by a hierarchy of proprietors, a subordination of the people of colour, an extravagant vanity has proposed their degradation; and, when the power of withdrawing is at hand, no class of men will suffer themselves to be degraded.

‘The mischiefs which the mulattoes have done us, the atrocities they have committed, shall not, nevertheless, prevent me from recollecting, that their introduction, at the opening of the states-general, had nothing reprehensible belonging to it. They had deputies at Paris, and an honest advocate for their counsel, M. Joly, with whom I had a conference. He communicated to me their memoir, which was moderate: they requested to be admitted, in common with other proprietors, to the exercise of political rights—a request, which was as imprudent on their part as on ours, in the sense in which it was understood; but to ameliorate their condition, to approximate them to ourselves, was a measure equally necessary for both parties. The colonists of St. Domingo associated themselves, at this time, to the number of two or three hundred, in a deliberative assembly, at the Hotel de Massiau: here they made motions, entered into resolutions, harangued, talked nonsense—according to the custom of the times. I engaged the mulattoes and their counsel to present themselves first of all to this assembly; judging it most important that the proprietors themselves should evince, on such an occasion, a sort of patronage towards the people of colour, by evincing that they were favourable to their pretensions, which we might have circumscribed within proper limits, had we assumed the initiative. I attended this assembly myself with this express view; but hardly was I suffered to be heard. In vain did I represent that it would be for the public weal we should show ourselves the protectors, and not the adversaries, of the people of colour; that the revolution, which was announcing itself with most fearful events, would, in spite of all our efforts, do more in their behalf than they themselves inreated; that it

was a matter of prudence, therefore, to attach them to our interests; that it was indispensable they should be courteously received, and prevented from presenting their petition to the states-general without our concurrence. My observations were as ill received as the petitioners themselves: these were treated with contempt; they in consequence retired discontented, and shortly afterwards collegued with the ringleaders of the projected subversion in the colonies. The national assembly having once acceded to this question of equality of rights with respect to the people of colour, it was easy to foresee its issue after the democratic delirium which agitated us; and it was on this occasion I endeavoured to prove, by the principles and spirit of representative government, that the colonies, in whatsoever compromised their safety and existence, were not reducible to the legislative principles and maxims of the mother country.—We have now tried every thing. Unlimited slavery has produced a revolution—the proclamation of liberty has produced every crime, every wretchedness. We at length arrive at a *régime* of precautions.

Our author now proceeds to offer his precautionary system. The regulations he proposes discover an enlarged view of the subject, and are equally founded on sound policy and benevolence of heart. He would have the subordination of the mulattoes most rigidly maintained; but, in the midst of this subordination, he would give them a system of laws for their own protection and security, while in the discharge of their duty—laws which should be so explicit as that the slave may thoroughly comprehend them himself, and so active in their operation, that the most powerful colonist should never transgress them without punishment. He would also put their own redemption into their own power, by allowing them some small quota of the profits of their own industry; and when they had thus risen from the class of slaves into that of freemen, he would have them fairly participate in the honours, offices, and emoluments, of commerce, or even legislation.

‘The Portuguese and the Spaniards have black slaves, like ourselves; yet peace exists in their warehouses, subordination is maintained without trouble in their colonies. Whence these effects?—because their domestic arrangements are good, and ours bad: because slavery, among them, constitutes a regulation of family—religion and the law protect it; its condition is mild; there is a prospect of amelioration; it admits a change of masters, the proprietor of him who is dissatisfied being indemnified by the allowed value of his labour or his skill: if the master abuse him, the *curé*, the magistrate, the sessions, attend to his grievances. In fact, his industry is able to procure him the means of enfranchisement; and the enfranchised, become a proprietary, enters hereby into the political hierarchy. He finds

situations above him; but his own is not degraded: no civil, ecclesiastical, or military function, is interdicted to him. — Why have not the English, the French, the Dutch, adopted these modifications? The time is now come in which they are indispensable: the law must be declared; and it may yet be a *conservative law*.'

In the course of our author's examinations, Adam Smith, as may well be expected, is exhibited in a favourable light. 'When Smith's work,' says he, 'appeared, his theory was judged of systematically; but experience has proved it to be converted, in many points, into axioms.'

'While I am writing,' he continues, 'general peace is proclaimed; yet French blood still flows in the torrid zone: a black, a mulatto, who had become old in slavery, disputes the sovereignty of St. Domingo with the hero-pacificator of Europe! his bloody banner displays itself against the victorious colours of the republic! he *permits* the whites to live under his authority without abasement—he destroys them the moment a wish is expressed to supercede him in the colony! Behold, then, this secret of horror exemplified. The liberty of the blacks!—it is their mastery; it is the massacre or the subjugation of the whites; it is the conflagration of our fields, of our cities. At the moment of this explosion, moreover, signs of a universal confederacy are exhibited throughout all the British islands. Is any thing further requisite, to prove the propriety of extreme precaution, of a plan of defence and regulation?—But let not our indignation prevent us from being just: the chiefly culpable are always the leaders: the exemplary punishment of these, and the strict rein of discipline, are sufficient for the multitude. These blacks have obviously forfeited their liberty: let them be re-burdened with the yoke: their officious defenders can demand nothing more than what reason, humanity, experience, point out to proprietors—to *modify slavery in every respect in which their own security is not compromised*.'

These observations relate to the French Antilles at large. With respect to Gaudaloupe, where the insurrectionary tumult has never been very violent, our author would not press any fresh changes at the present moment; repressive steps are, he thinks, sufficient alone. He gives the same advice respecting Cayenne, in which the cultivation of spices seems to be in no small degree prosperous, the plants having wonderfully thriven and multiplied, and left little else to be done but to gather their produce.

'Of all our colonies,' says he, 'the most important, that which is of more value to us than the mines of Brazil and Peru—St. Domingo—is in a most deplorable state. It is there that the

revolution, its principles, and its various forms, will still leave profound traces, even after the national authority *shall be re-established*. It is there that it is necessary to display an equal portion of strength and of wisdom; and to overthrow large capitals, if we would obtain any new harvests. It is calculated, that, out of five hundred thousand negroes of every age and sex, there have perished by the sword, within the last ten years, nearly two hundred thousand males, being half the blacks in a state to carry arms, and not less than half the population of the whites, amounting to from thirty-five to forty millions of souls. Every report, nevertheless, announces a great increase of children, and less mortality among the young negroes than before the revolution, which is unputed to the absolute rest their pregnant women enjoy, and to less fatigue on the part of the negroes themselves. We may therefore still find at St. Domingo three hundred thousand negroes of every age, from ten to twelve thousand people of colour, and twenty thousand whites: but in what a situation, in what habits and moral dispositions, shall we perceive these different classes of inhabitants? The great proprietors are almost all ruined—without credit, without resources: discouraged by their miseries, they stand in need of the aids of government, which ought not to despise their experience. The men known under the denomination of *petits blancs* (subordinate whites) constitute that part of the population which requires the greatest degree of watchfulness. They have always been turbulent, and, during the revolution, dangerous. The mulattoes have been atrocious, although there are exceptions to be made. Those who ought to be distinguished are easily known. But, in general, this class ought to be maintained in subordination, without ever permitting, and in punishing, indeed, every transgression very severely, the personal vengeance which the whites would exercise over them. The old free negroes merit more confidence; they generally exhibit a better conduct. This intermediate order ought to be watched over, but well treated. Besides that justice demands this, we have occasion for their services.

Our author here enters into a still more detailed statement of his views respecting the restoration of this important island. He arranges them under two principal divisions—means of police—means of credit. We shall not follow him through the chain of his argument, but shall briefly observe, that, for the most part, his ideas appear to us just and liberal. Whether, however, his countrymen will ever be able to accomplish them in the main point—to obtain a complete subjugation of the blacks, and reduce them once more to a state of simple slavery, but slavery protected, as we have already observed, by laws appropriate to that distinct class of society, and inflexibly executed against

those who transgress them—time only can determine, and it has nearly determined it already. We believe him to be in every respect considerably too sanguine.

We thus close our author's voluminous introduction, upon which we have dwelt the longer, as it forms a summary deduced from the essays of which the body of the present volume consists, written nearly twenty years ago, and concentrates its observations respecting the Antilles at large, and St. Domingo in particular, in their present state and relative situation. The essays which follow are divided into different parts—of which the first adverts to a general idea or interior view of the colony of St. Domingo; to its climate; its manners; its soil and production, both of the French and Spanish parts of the island (for our readers must keep in memory that these essays were composed long anterior to the union of this island, and the transfer of the two third parts, which appertained to Spain, to the French republic); to its slaves; its habitations; its towns, and their commerce. After which account of the domestic state of the colony, our author advances to part the second, which comprises its political state, in relation to the mother country, to foreigners, during peace and during war. In the observations which here occur to us, we find M. Malouet strongly condemning the policy of the court of Versailles, which has so readily relinquished colonial possessions, and even regarded them as a useless auxiliary. '*Louisiana*,' says he, 'an immense tract, more rich and more healthy than New England, *exists no longer for us*, and has not been better known. If merely a fourth part of the assistance which has been lavished so uselessly upon Guiana had been extended to this quarter, it is probable it would have succeeded far better.' The French legislature has since caught the idea; it has been actually wrested from Spain. But the ambition of the first consul has completely overrun his prudence—our author may still say *Louisiana exists no longer for us*.

Part the third is devoted to the civil state of the colony; comprising its administration; its laws and jurisprudence; its policy, and the component parts of its regulars and militia; its marine police; its finances and spiritual regulations. Respecting this last subject, our author instances a variety of the greatest abuses; and we have little reason to conceive that they are fewer or less atrocious now, provided any spiritual *régime* whatever subsists, than they were in the period to which he refers. The superior of the ecclesiastic mission had at that time, nevertheless, a plenitude of power allotted him by the papal see itself, and appears to have possessed the most absolute controul over his brethren; but never was power more abused, or religion more perverted.

† A succession of bad priests, ignorant and irregular, has destroyed, in almost every parish of the colony, respect for the state and the enlightened practice of religion. An atrocious cupidity has become the habitual vice of almost all the ecclesiastics. Occupied alone with the casual produce of their functions, they have made their ministry a business of finance; they have advanced to the most absurd prices the ceremonies of marriage and burial, regulated by express tariffs. A *cure* sends his memorial of service, and imposes from two to three thousand livres on the succession of the defunct. Such an irrational custom, founded upon vanity, makes every one murmur at these exactions while they subscribe to them. As to the rest, no pastoral instruction, nor any thing relating to the simplicity, to the superstition of negroes, occupies these ecclesiastics: not one of them acquires over his parishioners the authority of good morals, of a pious and charitable life. Some few common-place sentiments against fleshly indulgences, stale invectives against men of the world, drive these very persons away from frequenting their churches: eternal quarrels between the priests and artificers, and always relative to discussions of interest, banish all honest men from parochial meetings. The duties of these assemblies are shockingly administered: those who are indebted are almost always behind hand—the churches are falling into ruin—the government remains neuter. Such is, in substance, the actual situation of the church of St. Domingo.

The volume before us closes with a summary of regulations necessary for the administration of the colony of St. Domingo, proposed to the committee of legislation in 1775, and a review of the conduct of its administrators during the troubles it experienced from the re-establishment of a military force. The whole is now, however, become useless: for St. Domingo, like Louisiana, *exists no longer for France*.

Vol. V, and last, consists, for the most part, of Memoirs, which M. Malouet had formerly published separately, and particularly at the time when the tide of popular opinion flowed highest in France in favour of a total abolition of the slave-trade, and when the philosophers and economists united with equal ardor in the general wish. The first is accompanied by a few hitherto unpublished notes from the pen of the count de Mirabeau, who, having espoused the popular sentiment, gives the author credit for having, upon the whole, ably supported a bad cause.

ART. VII.—*Etat Commercial de la France, &c.*

Commercial State of France at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century; or, On French Commerce, on its former Defects, and the Ameliorations of which it is susceptible. By J. Blanc de Volx. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe.

THIS work is dedicated to Joseph Bonaparte, in the hope that the chief consul having in a short period of time advanced the power of the French republic to its utmost extent, nothing remains but to reap the benefit of that pecuniary strength, which, in modern Europe, can only result from commerce. And 'to whom,' says our author, 'could I offer with so much propriety the homage of my labours as to the minister-plenipotentiary, who, in signing the most glorious treaties which have ever dignified France, is now procuring for us the mode of applying them most happily to our new commercial system?' Our author's want of foresight may readily be excused: the heterogeneous and anomalous events of the present day baffle all the powers of prediction and speculation; and where the man of experience errs, the novice is often found to have guessed aright. M. de Volx, in the same tone, and animated by the same hopes, thus opens his preface.

'A new order is about to arise; peace is succeeding war, tranquillity tempest, laws anarchy, and stability the uncertainties, and perhaps the troubles, which are inseparable from temporary elections in a government not sanctioned by a long existence. Honour to the august body, which, by the most wise and necessary of organic laws, has imposed a check on every kind of ambition, has regained the hearts of those who were hostile, and has suppressed all the germs of future discord! Honour to the restorative government which has resuscitated the empire of protecting laws and holy institutions, reconciled man to their principles, and triumphed over the dangerous errors with which revolutionary passions had inoculated' [*inoculées—why not vaccinated*, while our author was about it?] 'every class of society. France at length breathes, and the days of happiness begin.'

We rejoice however to find, in the present military views and military government of the French republic, that any man can flatter himself with the hope of sufficient encouragement to a work of this description; and if, in its prosecution, we do not always meet with the enlarged ideas and accurate deductions of several veteran writers in our own country, and especially of the author of the *Wealth of Nations*, whose path M. de Volx

Seems anxious to follow; we must recollect, that the whole science is at present but in its infancy in France, and that the present writer has difficulties to struggle with, which time and experience can alone disperse. 'If population and agriculture,' observes he in his introduction, 'have in all ages proved the first elements of the strength of an empire, commerce, in its two-fold object, and especially in our own days, is become their rival, and has at times supplanted them. The history of commerce, which we yet stand in need of, if traced with a dextrous pen, would offer the most captivating picture which the human eye can contemplate. It is associated with every thing that the mind of man accounts great, with every thing the passions possess which is unruly, with every thing the sciences offer which is charming, or the arts which is wonderful. The progress of civilisation among all nations follows more or less rapidly the march of commerce, which either accompanies or outstrips its career.' Divided into four grand epochs, which discriminate the chronicles of the universe by commerce, the observer may become acquainted with the genius, the manners, the passions, the virtues, of the nations who have successively deluged the world with blood, or dazzled the earth with their glory. By it, far more decidedly than by military records, he may seize every shade, and mark every transition, through which a people pass progressively from a state of nature and barbarism to their decline and fall: he may perceive how they are conducted through the paths of civilisation, of laws, of institutions, of arts, of riches, and luxury, to corruption, the last link of this long chain, the constant and certain harbinger of approaching ruin. Finally, such a history might become the only elementary book whence men of property would afterwards deduce great examples and important lessons

'The first epoch might present to us, in succession, the attempts, feeble and infantine in their beginning, of the Egyptians and Phœnicians; the more courageous enterprises which followed; the vast excitements they offer to commerce; when fortified by their earlier experience and success, they easily acquired immense riches and luxuries: and, finally, the history of the Greeks, the imitators and disciples of these two nations in legislation and arts, as well as in commerce. A profound knowledge of this fostering art among these people might aid us in explaining the greater part of the fables of their ingenious mythology; and might ultimately show us in what manner their ideas, aggrandised by commerce, terminated in the production of those inimitable models which have merited the honour of being imitated by modern nations, and which constitute the utmost glory of their civilisation and their researches. The second epoch might make us better acquainted with the history of Rome and Carthage, their long rivalry, their cruel wars in

Sicily and Spain, in Africa and Asia, all of which had commerce for their object and end, on the part of the Carthaginians, while the Romans were only influenced by a spirit of domination. We should perceive, that, although a warrior nation might subdue a commercial nation enervated by its own wealth, the former is, in its turn, ruined by the very riches which it ravishes from the people whom it conquers; as was the case with Rome after the destruction of Carthage, and the reduction of Greece into a Roman province, at the moment when its own power was annihilated by the barbarians of the north.

The third, still more interesting to us, would offer a picture of the manners, of the objects, and of the principal advances, of modern nations in the middle ages; the influence of commerce and civilisation upon the laws, the arts, and the free opinions which were universally propagated; the independence which the greater number of towns hereby acquired; the confederation to which it gave birth on the borders of the Elbe and the Weser; the new ideas with which the arts of Greece, at this time enervated and degenerate, inspired those warriors whom an inordinate zeal urged onwards to the shores of the east; and which, putting a boundary to our age of iron and feudal servitude, prepared for Europe those brilliant days which followed the new birth of letters and commerce. Finally, the fourth epoch, uniting the discovery of America and the Cape of Good Hope, would evince the influence which commerce has acquired over all modern nations; its interests, which regulate every treaty, every alliance which the different governments project or realise, every plan of politics or war which has been executed in the old world, or, since its discovery, in the new; the spontaneous or progressive advantages which every people has hence obtained, and which it has lost, the moment it has ceased to protect commerce, or has been unable to afford it protection.

Upon this subject it cannot but be observed, and truth compels the avowal, that it is not to the French nation that the most brilliant part appertains in the history of the commerce of modern times. Of all the different states engaged in this immense career, the Portuguese were the first who associated the glory of execution with the hazard of enterprise. In recompense for their courage, India opened to them her productive mines, and resigned to them her treasures. But soon did the successors of the great Albuquerque—not less barbarous in Asia than the Spaniards had been in America—behold the chief part of the new empire which they had founded, disputed and wrested from them by those same Spaniards. Not less covetous of riches, the Dutch delayed not to enter into a participation with them. Revenge having now united itself, in their persons, with a thirst after gold, they sought to obtain satisfaction in India for the war which Phillip II had made upon them in Europe. More

phlegmatic, more patient, more cunning, perhaps more dextrous, they finished, by wresting from their first depopulators, the richest portion of their conquests, which they have even preserved to these latter times.

• The English appeared in their turn. Tangiers and Bombay, which Catharine of Portugal carried as her dowry to the reigning prince, and shortly afterwards Jamaica, which they seized from the Spaniards, were their first possessions beyond their own island: all the three colonies, thrown by nature upon the most opposite points of the globe, and each not less remote from their newly-adopted mother country, it has been said, that, by this very difference of situation, they foretold to the astonished world that their fortunate possessors were destined, on a future day, to rule the immense oceans which surround them; to bind the universe in chains of a new slavery, and, *by the humiliating yoke imposed on elements and on men, to weary out both the one and the other by a power hitherto unknown.*—

In vain did the French, who, among commercial nations, if I except the Danes and the Swiss, appeared last on the coasts of Asia, attempt to strive with energy and perseverance against the English: wars long and dreadful, maintained in Europe for the interest of Indian commerce, made torrents of blood flow in vain—the commercial balance always preponderated in favour of England. One moment, it is true, towards the middle of the last century, the power of England was menaced with the loss of its supremacy, and a total drain of the resources of its wealth, by the genius, the perseverance, and the dexterity, of Dupleix and Labourdonnaye. To the misfortune of France, however, disagreement sprang up between these two great men: their controversy paralysed every plan they had proposed, and which stood in need of the strictest unity for their execution: it turned back the storm which menaced the English Indies, and neutralised the first successes which Labourdonnaye had already obtained. More unfortunately still, Dupleix died; and a narrow and financial government—entrusted to faithless agents, whose interests were different from those of the state—upon the return of Labourdonnaye to France, refused to follow the plans which he proposed for adoption, and recompensed his services by a *lettre de cachet*, which threw him into the dungeons of the Bastille. It was thus England beheld herself delivered from the two most terrible adversaries with whom she had to contend in India. Alarmed in regard to those possessions, which create her strength and riches, ever since this epoch, pains, perseverance, sacrifices, nothing has been spared to augment and consolidate her power: her negotiations, her wars, her treaties, have only been decided by the interests of her commerce.

• Instructed in their turn by the example of England, no other

the blame cast upon him for too frequently indulging in ill-timed digressions. In this view, M. Larcher traces, with judgment and precision, the plan on which he conceives Herodotus to have written, concluding with a retrospect on his history at large, which evinces that an intimate connexion subsists through all its parts, not one of which could be retrenched without injuring the rest; that, though rapidity of narration be the characteristic of the historian, yet, to conciliate the attention of his readers, he sometimes stops in his progress, for the sake of introducing more agreeably such incidental information as it behoves them to gain. From the reiterated accounts of his undertaking, M. Larcher, in p. 38, proceeds to point out the particulars which distinguish the present edition. These, after a careful revision of the whole translation, are a correction of those passages in which he was not satisfied with having expressed the exact sense; a greater degree of precision and more compression of style; a reformation of such notes as wanted exactness; with the addition of several that were judged necessary to illustrate various points of antiquity, and render the historian better understood. To this he adds, as an apology for further alterations, 'at length, being intimately convinced of all the truths taught by the Christian religion, I have retrenched or reformed all the notes that could offend it. From some of them conclusions have been drawn which I disapprove, and which were far from my thoughts; others of them contain things, which I must, to discharge my conscience, confess freely, that more mature examination and deeper researches have demonstrated to have been built on slight or absolutely false foundations. The truth cannot but be a gainer by this avowal: to it alone have I consecrated all my studies: I have been anxious to return to it from the moment I was persuaded I could seize it with advantage. May this homage, which I render it in all the sincerity of my heart, be the means of procuring me absolution for all the errors I have hazarded or sought to propagate!—It is with singular satisfaction we cite this passage; and from the similar declarations of *Marmontel* and *La Harpe*, congratulate the Christian world on the returning influence of truth and reason.

M. Larcher proceeds to state his obligations to the men of letters by whose aid he hath profited, particularly Messrs. Wyttenbach, Coray of Smyrna, and M. Chardon de la Rochette (from the last of whom an excellent edition may be expected of the Greek Anthology). The name of Bruce, however, being here introduced, he lavishes upon him strictures without mercy. Mr. Bruce is nevertheless compensated, in some measure, by the general popularity he has of late acquired in France. That Mr. Bruce is obnoxious to some portion of the censure cast upon him, we admit; but, with this set-off, his book contains much information, and, we may add, much well authenticated fact. The new

edition of it shortly to appear will contain, we are informed, considerable improvements. Having pronounced major Rennell's work on the Geography of Herodotus an indemnification for the disgust created by Bruce, M. Larcher judiciously states his conception of the requisites to render perfect the edition of an historian.

These he specifies to be three, and to depend upon the critical and grammatic part, which fixes the text of the author and explains its difficulties; the chronology, which connects the facts with each other; and the geography, which points out the scenes of memorable achievements, and, by spreading light on the transactions recorded, gives them additional interest.

Wesseling and Valcknaer, though defective in the two last points, have merited much from Herodotus in the first; and if any imperfections have escaped in this department, M. Larcher gives reason to hope for their being repaired in the edition now publishing by Schæfer.

As to chronology, it is observed that what precedes the Trojan war is in great part systematic. In respect therefore to Herodotus, it is only requisite to discover the system, investigate the grounds, and furnish the proofs on which he proceeded. Posterior times to this epoch having been illustrated by men of eminent learning, some few difficulties, it is added, remain, which, without doubt, futurity will adjust.

In respect to ancient geography, D'Anville and his successor Gosselin; our Vincent; Hartmann, Hennicke, Schlichthorst, and Gatterer, are represented as having left but little to be supplied by those who shall follow in the departments they have pre-occupied. The most difficult part, and the most appropriate to this work still remained: this major Rennell is most handsomely said to have supplied. 'He,' says M. Larcher, 'is the D'Anville of England, and greater praise a Frenchman cannot bestow.'

Reverting from these compliments to his subject, M. Larcher observes that, in his former edition, being obliged to compile the table of geography whilst the translation itself was printing, he could not give it the requisite attention. With a view to supply its defects, great care has now been bestowed on the Geography of Egypt in particular, and the articles Heliopolis, Mendes, The Nile, Saïs, Tachompso, Tanis, &c. have either been reformed or re-written: nor has M. Larcher confined his retrospection to Egypt alone; the other countries mentioned by Herodotus have not been neglected. Of this, Chalcedonia, Cos, Eubœa, &c. afford proof. The article Oeroë is discussed at considerable length. On the head of geography M. Larcher expresses his obligations to M. de SAINTE-CROIX, whose *Examen Critique des anciens Historiens d'Alexandre*, which obtained the prize of the Academy of Belles-Lettres in 1772—a work of

singular merit—together with his other writings, have been greatly advantageous to him.

As to the chronology of Herodotus, the reader is requested to observe, it is left to stand on its own grounds. Had it been retrenched, the history of the Egyptians and Assyrians would have been rendered unintelligible. Without adopting the pretended antiquity of the former, M. Larcher deems it absurd. What relates to the foundation of Tyre has been altogether rewritten. New interest is given to chapter v. on the Kings of Babylon, by an attempt to settle the dispute concerning Darius the Mede. Two chapters are also added on the ancient Pelasgi and the Lacedæmonians, in which the author has investigated subjects of difficulty with much acuteness and judgement.

In the chronological canon many changes have been made, and numerous additions. Supplementary to this subject two articles are annexed, which M. Larcher esteems of considerable importance: the one regards Sesostris, and the other the zodiacs of Tentyra. In what relates to the former, however, we can by no means concur, nor does the latter carry with it that fulness of conviction we hoped for from a person of M. VISCONTI's reputation, at least when compared with a paper on the subject written by a countryman of our own. [See Philosophical Magazine for November 1802.]

After assigning his reasons for inserting the Life of Homer ascribed to his author; the Extracts from the History of Persia, by Ctesias; and Plutarch's Treatise on the Malignity of Herodotus; M. Larcher, full of respect for the public, having devoted himself with ardour, in defiance of age and ill health, to the improvement of his work, observes that, though he dare not flatter himself with having accomplished his wishes, he can confidently say, neither care nor trouble has been spared for the attainment of his end. *Posteris an aliqua cura nostri, nescio: nos certe meremur, ut sit aliqua, non dico ingenio (id enim superbum), sed studio, sed labore, et reverentiâ posterorum.* Pliny, lib. ix. epist. xiv.

To give extracts, as specimens of the contents of these volumes, would be incompatible with the limits which other articles require; it is, however, but the bare tribute of justice to say, that M. Larcher has hereby increased his reputation, and presented to the world an abundant harvest of ancient learning.

It was reported from France, and on good ground, that the publication of this book was for some time suspended, in consequence of a parallel, introduced in a note, between Agis, king of Lacedæmon, and Louis XVI. When called upon by authority to cancel it, Larcher, in his 76th year, is said to have replied, that he was too old to make alterations. Finding, however, alteration was necessary to publication, he at length complied. How the passage stood at first we have not been able to learn: at present,

though the name of Louis be suppressed, the observations, upon that account, lose nothing of their force, whilst the last word cuts to the quick.

‘ His subjects were unworthy of such a prince ; his virtuous conduct perpetually reproached them for their crimes. This silent censure irritated them ; and they thought they should free themselves from its operation by putting him to death. This rightful crime, at which humanity revolts, precipitated the vengeance of heaven. Virtue was proscribed by cruel tyrants. Under their government nothing was any longer beheld but confusion, plunder, accusations, murders, and proscriptions, till at length this state, which had been virtuous, passed, as we have observed, under a *foreign domination* *.’

ART. IX.—*Monumens Antiques, inédits, ou nouvellement expliqués, &c. Par M. Millin. Tome I. 4^e Livraison. 4to. Paris.*

Ancient Monuments, unpublished, or newly explained. By M. Millin. Vol. I. No. IV. Imported by De Boffe.

THE contents of this number are, a description of a cameo of the National Library, which M. Millin supposes to represent the head of Ulysses, with an elegant engraving ; a bas-relief of the central Museum of Arts, said to represent the throne of Saturn, with a plate in outline ; a patera of gold of the Cabinet of Antiques in the National Library, exhibiting a challenge between Hercules and Bacchus, with four illustrative engravings ; and an explication of a votive inscription found at Halinghen, near Boulogne-sur-mer, with a copy cut in wood.

The first article begins with preliminary remarks, in which M. Millin discriminates with precision the character of Ulysses, as given by Homer, in opposition to that by the Greek tragedians, for the purpose of showing that the artist had derived his ideas of it from the former, to the exclusion of those degrading qualities by which the latter have disgraced it. Hence the personage represented by the artist is not the shrewd and crafty Ulysses, but he whom Homer hath described, and Horace copied from Homer. The moment accordingly seized is that when, having weighed the nature of the enterprise,

* ‘ Ses sujets n'étoient pas dignes d'un tel prince ; sa conduite vertueuse leur reprochoit sans cesse leurs crimes. Cette censure muette les irritoit. Ils crurent s'en débarrasser en le faisant mourir. Ce crime affreux, qui révolte l'humanité, précipita la vengeance du ciel. De cruels tyrans proscrivirent la vertu. On ne vit plus sous leurs règnes, que concussions, que brigandages, que délations, que meurtres, que proscriptions, jusqu'à ce qu'enfin cet état, qui avoit été vertueux, passa, comme nous l'avons observé, sous une *domination ÉTRANGÈRE*.’

and engaged in it, the hero bravely resists the enemy that had dared to assail him. The deliberation, however, and attention on his countenance, show evidently that, even in this imminent peril, his prudence does not desert him; he preserves his coolness, and the firmness of his soul is equal to the greatness of his courage and the force of his arm.

On his head, the *pilidion*, called in common *the cap of Ulysses*, is determined by M. Millin to be the same which was worn by sailors to guard against the humidity of the sea, in opposition to the *petasus*, or hat, worn by travellers on land; though he admits that the use of this cap was of later date, upon the authority of Eustathius, who mentions it as first employed by Apollodorus, the master of Zeuxis; and adds that this ornament was assumed from a passage in Homer hitherto misunderstood, by taking the helmet of Ulysses, which was common to all the kings of Ithaca, as peculiar to himself.

Having collected from Pliny, Pausanias, and others, whatever might apply to this *pilidion* in its simple state, M. Millin considers its ornaments, and is of opinion these were added, after having been introduced by statuaries in their decorations of the gods, citing those on the helmet of Minerva as affording an example. The conflict between the Centaurs and Lapithæ, which it exhibits, is minutely illustrated; the veil which supplied the place of the *lophos*, or horse-tail, is noticed; the Homeric *egis*, as implying the protection of Minerva and Jupiter, is descanted on; and the moment represented is acutely supposed to be that when, returned to Ithaca, the hero had taken possession of the entrance of his palace, in opposition to the persecutors of the chaste Penelope.

The gem itself is well conjectured to have been copied from some celebrated original, which represented Ulysses at length, as well as the whole group to which the story referred. The stone is a cornelian of an uncommon size, and the engraving masterly, though not perfect.

The next subject hath been pronounced by VISCONTI *curious and important*. The architecture is of the composite order, with two pediments on each side, severally supported by two fluted pilasters, having their capitals ornamented with two rows of foliage, but without volutes. In the front centre of this architecture is the throne of the god; over the back a design composed of acanthus-leaves, flowers, and flourishes; the legs, ornamented with foliage, and the same flowers as on the top, stand on square pedestals, with what M. Millin calls pine-cones on their summits, which are also square like the bottoms, having the calyx of a flower in each. On the seat itself a veil is suspended, and beneath it a starry globe, with the zodiac denoted by the four signs of the *twins*, the *archer*, the *balance*, and *fishes*,

resting on a footstool, marked in two equal divisions, each ornamented with flowers.

On either side of the throne are two groups, each consisting of two genii, those on the right bearing what M. Millin styles a vast *harpe*, or hook, whence the scythe of Time was devised. From the attitudes of the others, and the part remaining in one hand (for the remaining three are mutilated), M. Visconti has conjectured that the other genii were contending for the sceptre of Saturn. Much research is evidenced in the illustrations annexed.

Of the patera, which occupies the third disquisition, a preliminary account is given; and, amongst much curious information on similar utensils, we meet with a history of its discovery. A description of it follows, and a detailed explanation, in which M. Millin displays his erudition; but, as this ingenious antiquary has inserted an abridged notice of this curiosity in his *Dictionnaire de Mythologie*, under the word *Bacchus*, and that work is in so many hands, we forbear, for want of room, to copy what otherwise we would gladly present to our readers. The explanation of the medals at the end of this article, which we cannot avoid adding, will be found interesting, though not easily intelligible without the engravings.

The inscription in the last section of this number, read on one side of a square hollow stone, is as follows:

EI DEO IOVI
 V I C V S
 DOLVCENS
 CV-VITALIS
 PRISC

This monument, M. Millin thinks, was consecrated to several divinities, whose names are lost, from the upper part of the stone having been separated. What remains he reads thus: ET DEO IOVI VICVS DOLVCENSIS CVRATOR VITALIS PRISCVS; signifying that *Vitalis Priscus*, superintendent of Dolucens, had erected this altar to the divinities whose names are lost, and especially to the god Jupiter.

Before we had closed the above account, the *fifth number* of this volume arrived. Unwilling to delay our notice of it till the next Appendix, we at present only briefly state its contents. The subjects, to those who are curious in the representations on ancient vases, will be found particularly interesting.

The first M. Millin pronounces to be a *representation of Orestes pursued by the Furies, and his expiation*; and, to confirm his interpretation, he brings together all the learning to be found concerning the fable: whether, however, this afford a satisfactory explication, and especially of the figures on the re-

verse, we will leave those most conversant with such subjects to determine.

A marble vase in the collection of M. Van-Hoorn, ornamented with a bas-relief representing two monsters with arabesques, conceived in a grand style, affords room for curious remarks, in the second section of the number. The third gives a picture from a Greek vase, exhibiting a conqueror from the chariot race, with Victory rewarding him. M. Millin, on this as on all other occasions, leaves no point of his subject curtailed. We regret that we cannot state his merits more fully; but to appreciate these, we must refer to his work.

ART. X.—*P. S. Pallas Bemerkungen auf einer Reise, &c.*
Leipfic.

Observations made during Travels in the Southern Departments of Russia, in the Years 1793 and 1794. By P. S. Pallas. Vol. II. 4to. With coloured Plates, in a separate Atlas. Imported by De Boffe.

IN our XXVIIIth volume we noticed the first volume of these travels, and gave a general account of the author's object and progress. This, we observed, is a supplementary work, a kind of 'finish' to M. Pallas' former labours, and, from his advanced age, probably the last. Incurious or ignorant must be the naturalist who is not acquainted with this author's former travels, with his *Spicilegia Zoologica*, with the various additions which he has made to every branch of natural history. We are not prepared to name any other veteran to whom this science is so much indebted; and even Thunberg, an unwearied naturalist, whose late works we have noticed in the present number, must yield in competition with Pallas. Gmelin, his colleague and coadjutor, cannot be his rival.

The first volume has appeared in our own language, which we have not noticed, as we wait for the conclusion, to appreciate generally the translator's merits. The curiosity of the reader may in a great measure be gratified by this and the former article. The author, in his preface, excuses the delay of the volume before us, from particular circumstances impossible to foresee or guard against. We next find a list of the plates which accompany this volume—twenty. Three of these are coloured. To which we may add three copies of inscriptions, three charts of routes, one of the Isle of Taman, and fourteen vignettes. All these decorations may in some measure excuse the extravagant price of the work; but, on the whole, we cannot speak highly of their execution: they are splendid—but, as coloured drawings, which they are designed to represent, very defective. The typography we see highly praised in many foreign journals;

but its merit is comparative only. To the English reader it is neat, but not elegant.

The traveller first visits only that part of Tartary which once belonged to the khan of the Crimea: it is the peninsula of the Crimea, and the most remarkable place is Perekop. This country we have formerly visited with lady Craven, and shall again examine with the secretary of a Russian embassy. Since the cession of the Crimea, the Tartars have remained exclusively possessors of the city of Bachtchisarai; and for this reason we find the inhabitants consisting of Tartars and Jews, without a single Russian. Each party has its own magistrates; and they are in general very distinct. The author describes the palace of the khan and the other curiosities of the city; among which we may remark the tombs of the former princes, and the aqueducts constructed of tubes of baked clay.

The port of Sewastopol, or Achtiar, was constructed by the Russians soon after the acquisition of the Crimea, and it rapidly became a considerable city. In its environs are a great number of Grecian monuments; and indeed the whole country, after the æra of Strabo, was known by the appellation of Neracletic Chersonnesus. The new city of Cherson is situated on the western bank of the bay nearest to the port of Sewastopol. Through the whole of this country we find numerous ruins, old walls, and foundations of houses, in which we still discover the most ancient method of building practised by the Greeks, by means of enormous blocks of stone joined by pieces of wood, and cemented with clay.

M. Pallas leaves the antiquities to give an account of the plants which he found at different places in the Chersonnesus, and to describe the mountains and their productions. All these objects are particularly noticed, and offer observations equally new and interesting to the natural historian, the geographer, and the antiquary. If our limits will permit, we shall from this portion select some specimens of the author's labours: at this time we shall confine ourselves to a few short observations on the peninsula of the Crimea.

The population was formerly estimated at about 500,000; but in 1778 more than 30,000 Christians, who inhabited the country between the Don and the Berda, were removed behind the sea of Asof. In the first years also of the Russian government many thousand Tartars sold their possessions, and retired to Nætolia and Romelia; so that in 1793 the population did not exceed 157,133 individuals of every age and sex. In 1800 the number was 120,000 males of every age and condition.

At the head of the Tartarian clergy is a musti, who has the rank of a Russian general, and whose annual stipend amounts to 2000 roubles: a kadi esker effendi and five ulemas form, with him, a kind of synod. The subaltern clergy are formed by the

cadis of villages, the chadyps, and the imans. Under the name of *mullah*, or *mollah*, are comprehended all those devoted to the study of the Kóran, even though they should not be imans.

The food of the Tartars consists of rice and meat, mixed and prepared in different ways. They eat mutton, goats' and horses' flesh, either boiled or roasted. Beef, on the contrary, is very uncommon. The common drink is cheese mixed with water; and they prepare, with water and the flour of the millet seed, a very inebriating kind of beer. Brandy is very common; and they obtain it from different fruits, particularly prunes.

In a particular section the author describes the present state of the Crimea, and the means of œconomically meliorating that country. The whole of this is uninteresting to the English reader, but truly merits the attention of the Russian government. In the following sections, he treats of the methods of bruising the corn by means of horses, which is represented in the thirteenth vignette; of the cultivation of the vine in the Crimea, with the means of destroying the noxious insects; of the fruit-gardens resembling those of Europe; of the culture of trees and shrubs, the plants subservient to domestic œconomy and to the arts. Among the dyeing plants, we find in the Crimea the madder, the woad, the greening weed, and the archil. The carthamus, or the bastard saffron, succeeds very well in the gardens; and the true oriental saffron might probably be cultivated with advantage.

The race of horses might be meliorated; but they want good stallions. The breed of sheep is excellent, and furnishes a considerable object of attention. They export annually more than 30,000 grey fleeces, and from 50 to 60,000 black ones. These are exported from Perekop, and the greater number are sent to Poland. The salt lakes afford a considerable quantity of common salt, which requires a further purification. The whole export trade from the Crimea does not exceed 4 or 500,000 roubles annually, and the imports amount to from 3 to 400,000.

The volume is concluded by the author's return from the Crimea to Petersburg. He describes many medals which he procured on the road. At Pultawa he visited the monument erected in memory of the defeat of Charles XII. which consists of a large plate of brass fixed to the tower of the church, on which the battle is represented.

Our limits will not admit of a very extensive specimen; but we shall select some account of the country and the climate of the Crimea.

‘ Nothing can be conceived more agreeable than the prospect of the mountains, and of a country interspersed with hills and woods, occasionally divided by a meandering river; in short, of objects recommended by their novelty, after a long and te-

dious journey over sandy plains, without variety and without interest. Independently of these attractions, the mountainous region of the Crimea offers, in the advanced season of autumn, successive allurements of different kinds. The reader, after this, may easily fancy the agreeable surprise we experienced, on reaching the charming valley of the river of Salgir, in seeing at a distance a still more mountainous country.

‘ The agreeable and often warm weather, which we experienced during the month of November, and which continued through that of December, enabled me to collect, at even this advanced season, seeds of peculiar rarity, and gave me hopes, from the remains of the plants, of the successful continuation of my botanic labours. My infirm health could alone confine my zeal; and it had suffered so much in my autumnal journey, that I could not often venture abroad, and I was obliged to confine myself, during the months of December and January, to re-establish it.

‘ The winter, and, in general, the temperature of the peninsula of the Crimea, is unequal and variable, either from the topography of the country, or the various interchange of hill and valley in its mountainous parts. I shall give a general account of it in my view of the physical relations of the Crimea, and shall confine myself at present to speak of the winter of 1793-4. During the first fortnight of November, the weather was fine, dry, and agreeable, accompanied by a constant east wind, which brings with it a suitable temperature. Some days were so hot that we could not mount the hills without great perspiration, though a little frost had occurred the September preceding, and some snow had fallen on the mountains, which disappeared almost as soon as the hoar frost which before covered them. After the middle of November we felt some cold, accompanied by snow, which continued with cloudy days uninterruptedly till the 27th. On this day, at eight in the evening, a slight earthquake was felt at Bachtschisarai, Karassubasar, and Perekop, not comparable to that which occurred in the year 1790 over the whole southern coast of the peninsula. On the same day the wind changed to the south-west, and we saw flocks of from ten to twenty couple of bustards file down from the mountains, driven probably by the snow which fell on the *step* and the peninsula of Kertseh. On the 28th it began to thaw, with a continual tempest from the Archipelago, alternating with rain; and the rills from the mountains, increased to torrents, fell with considerable noise. In December there were many clear days; but in the north, in the direction of the *step* (the sandy plain) of Perekop, where the view is not bounded, black clouds of snow, such as we see here (in St. Petersburg) in the clearest days of autumn and winter.

‘ The cold returned on the first days of January, 1794, to

which, on the 5th, snow succeeded, which covered the plain to a considerable height, and continued to the end of the month; an appearance so uncommon, that the inhabitants celebrated it with races of sledges—an entertainment with which they were sufficiently satiated in the severe winters of 1798—1800. At the beginning of February the thaw was complete, and the swallows appeared on the 6th. On the 8th a cold wind from the east, announced by a frost, superseded that from the south-west, to which the thaw was owing; but, about the 12th, in the last quarter of the moon, a little rain brought on fair weather—so that on the 13th and 14th, when the sun shone out warm, we saw in the gardens and the most clement situations on the mountains different varieties of the crocus and the sweet violet beginning to bloom, the buds of the *Adonis vera*, *hyacinthus ramosus*, and *ornithogalum pilosum*, appearing above ground, and the labours of the plough commencing. On the 16th, however, at noon, a north-east wind suddenly occurred, and brought back the frost; and on the 18th, with the new moon, a violent tempest from some point of the east continued with uninterrupted fury till the renewal of the following moon, which so much retarded the progress of vegetation, by its cold and dryness, that the cornel tree began only to bloom in March; while in other years its buds had begun to expand in February.

‘ In spite of the rigour of winter, the cold was not beyond the tenth degree of congelation of Réaumur’s thermometer. Though ice was occasionally observed on the Bosphorus, there were times when it was perfectly free. On the contrary, the loose ice from the sea of Asof continued during the whole winter and through a great part of the spring, which occasioned a coldness during the season; the same effect that the ice produces at Petersburg from the lakes of Ladoga and Onega, though the rivers on the south of Russia are early free from ice.’

Any adequate specimen of the natural history of the Crimea would detain us, we perceive, too long; so that we shall wait the appearance of the translation, when, in a more extensive space, we may follow the author more closely. We must not, however, leave the present work without further notice of the embellishments, which have so greatly enhanced the price.

We have said that the plates are designed to resemble coloured drawings; but, though splendid and brilliant, they want softness, and that accurate representation of natural objects which can alone render them truly valuable. The contours of the mountains are often stiff straight lines; and the gullies formed by the running waters represent any thing but what is intended. Some of the mountains must, however, be excepted, particularly those near the sea. Daniell’s beautiful views of Calcutta

and its neighbourhood seem to have been M. Geisler (the artist)'s prototype; but he falls infinitely below the object of his imitation.

Among the plates, one of the best is the first, representing the gate of Perekop; and the fourth, a view of the port of Achiatar, or Sewastopol. The plates of natural history represent the camel of the Crimea with two bunches; the grey sheep of the Crimea; and the ewe with grey silvery wool. The other plates represent different dresses of the country; and these, with the features of the men and women, appear to be peculiar and truly characteristic. Among the vignettes, we may particularly distinguish those which represent the sledge employed to bring wood from the steep mountains, the plough, and other instruments of husbandry in use among the Tartars.

ART. XI.—*Mémoires sur l'Égypte, &c.*

Memoirs on Egypt, &c. (Continued from Vol. XXXV. p. 515).

WE did not pursue this work in our last Appendix, as we had reason to think a translation of the second would follow that of the first volume, noticed in the XXXth of our Journal, page 31; and the claims of foreign authors are so numerous as to allow of every reduction of labour. In our XXXVth volume we scarcely proceeded beyond the 'History,' for the reasons there assigned. We must now, therefore, hasten more rapidly; for, since that period, we have received a third and fourth volume of this collection.

'A Report on the Moristan, or the Hospital of Cairo, addressed to the General in Chief Bonaparte. By M. Desgenettes.' It was among the benevolent actions of Bonaparte, in Egypt, to reform the hospitals, and give assistance to the afflicted. The account of this worthy physician is a very gloomy one. An hospital in Egypt offered no means of cure; it was an asylum only for the diseased; a house to cover them, and a scanty diet, were all the aids that it afforded.

'A Continuation of the Extracts of the Geography of Abd-êr-Rachyd-el-Bakouy on the Description of Egypt. By M. J. J. Marcel.' We cannot abridge these extracts; but to us they appear very interesting, though on subjects of no general concern. It is singular that M. Marcel interprets the surname of Alexander Dou-l-garnéyn, 'with two horns,' from the extent of his empire from east to west, forgetting his favourite legend of Jupiter Ammon. In this abstract, and in the notes, there are numerous illustrations of the Pentateuch, particularly those parts which relate to Moses and Joseph.

‘A Report made to Bonaparte in the Name of the Commission respecting a Plan of Organisation for a Civil Hospital at Cairo.’ The whole plan is at an end, and an abstract would be useless.

‘A historical and geographical Relation of a Voyage from Constantinople to Trebifond, by Sea, in the fifth Year of the Republic. By M. Beauchamp.’

We found this memoir very interesting, particularly in a geographic view. In announcing the first reading of M. Beauchamp’s *Inquiries*, in our XXXth volume, we mentioned the correction of M. Bonne’s error, who extended Trebifond five degrees and a half into Asia; the remains probably of Ptolemy’s mistake, who carried it much further. Our author met with a singular difficulty very early. On applying for a firman, the Porte could not find a precedent: M. Beauchamp pointed out that of Tournefort, which was literally copied. At Trebifond, therefore, the inconvenience was first felt. He was compelled to botanise, though without any knowledge of plants; and he could not make astronomic observations, because this was not consistent with his firman. These difficulties were, however, in time, conquered; and the longitude of Trebifond, from Paris, was found to be $37^{\circ} 18' 15''$; from Constantinople, $10^{\circ} 4' 15''$. From Trebifond to the embouchure of the Olasis is 120 miles. Trebifond retains little evidence of its former magnificence; and, from the remains, we should not expect it to have been the residence of the Grecian emperors. It is built on the shore of the Black Sea, on the side of a hill, in a delightful situation. Its shape is an irregular square; and it is surrounded with walls, now in a ruinous state; but the houses only occupy the portion next the shore: the space above, within the walls, is allotted to gardens. The commerce is languid, and consists in copper, nuts, linens, and Georgian slaves. Our author proceeds to Platana, the road of Trebifond, in which the largest ships anchor. The whole coast is represented as delightful, with an interchange of hill and valley, diversified with country seats and woods. The climate was not hot: in the height of summer, there was snow on the mountains; and the thermometer (we suppose Réaumur’s) was not higher than 20° (77° of Fahrenheit). The whole of this coast is however moist and foggy.

Our author coasts the southern and western part of the sea only in his way to Constantinople, and first anchors in the road of Vona, which he finds to be in latitude $41^{\circ} 6' 35''$; the longitude $8^{\circ} 55' 10''$ from Constantinople. Unich is on the same coast, still further to the west, in a charming position.

‘It is situated, like Trebifond, on the side of a hill; and the houses are interspersed with gardens. The town faces the east,

and extends to the cape, enjoying the advantage of a little river, whose banks terminate in hills, adorned with trees. I would avoid the suspicion of an enthusiastic admiration of distant countries; but I own that large forests, on the banks of the sea, have something peculiarly striking. This perhaps is owing to my sight having been almost always fixed on deserts. Persia, the famous empire of Persia, has neither woods nor rivers, at least in the northern parts, through which I have travelled 300 leagues. I do not remember to have seen a tree, of any considerable girth, in any of the Grecian islands on which I have landed.

We pass over many astronomic and geographic remarks of less moment, till we arrive at Sinope, a town built on the isthmus of a peninsula, whose longitude is $6^{\circ} 5' 30''$ from Constantinople; $32^{\circ} 41' 45''$ from Paris, east. The latitude is $42^{\circ} 2' 7''$. The land trends, from these computations, nearly a degree of latitude more than geographers have allowed. The width of the sea is, therefore, considerably contracted from Cape Vona to the sea of Asof, a circumstance hitherto unsuspected.

This city is surrounded by walls, with a castle of a more modern date, built by the Genoese. A port is constructed from the ruins of temples and palaces. On every side we see marble and granite columns, architraves, &c. I observed on the length of an ancient cornice, mixed with the other ruins of which the castle is formed, a Greek inscription, which I shall not copy in this report.

We remarked on a wall, near the sea, a relievo well preserved, representing a man reclined on a couch, with a vase in his hand. A woman, naked, is sitting at his feet, holding also a vase. At a distance is a child, drawing water from an open vessel, of an elegant form. By the side of the woman is a half-circular table, with three feet. This relic is about fourteen or fifteen inches high, and two feet wide.

At Amassero (Amestiro) other remains of antiquity are found, which our limits will not permit us to describe. The longitude of Amassero is $29^{\circ} 4'$ east, and latitude $41^{\circ} 46' 8''$. We shall conclude this memoir with noticing one singular circumstance.

It has been remarked by Buache that the traverses of the Black Sea, from south to north, or north-east, make the distances of land too great. On the contrary, those from the south and south-west render them too short. From this it is probable that a current runs from the sea of Asof; and indeed this might be supposed from the body of water poured down from the Don, and the other rivers supplied by the mountains of Caucasus. A fact adduced by our author will illustrate this subject.

'The boats of Trebifond have a commercial connexion; but they do not go up on the eastern side. They proceed to Sinope, and thence to Balaklava. Do they endeavour to avoid the currents from the sea of Asof? or do they find others at Sinope? They say it is the route; but, as they return by the same road, I can find a reason sufficiently probable for their conduct. As they sail without a chart, they seldom go far from the coast. They have a bad compass, the needle of which is formed of two pieces of steel, forming a lozenge. They know from habit the direction of their course; but, as they do not estimate it by the log, they might make unfortunate mistakes were they to go at large. On arriving at Sinope, they cut the Black Sea in its shortest direction; and, however little the wind, soon see Cape Karadje, in the Crimea. It may be asked why they do not coast from Trebifond to Anapa, and thence to the Crimea? I have no answer to give.'

'Mémorial on the geographic Position of Cairo, and many Points of Lower Egypt. By M. Nouet.' This very laboured and satisfactory memoir we need not abridge. The results are generally known from the very accurate maps of Lower Egypt, corrected from M. Nouet's observations.

'Météorological Observations, communicated by M. Nouet to M. Desgenettes, for the Purpose of a Physical and Medical History of the Army of the East.' These observations are made in succession, at different places, from Alexandria to Cairo; thence to Damietta, Belbeys, &c.; afterwards again at Cairo. At Alexandria, we find, on the 9th Thermidor (July 27), the thermometer at 24° (86° F.); at Belbeys, in the morning, we see it, 6 Nivose (Dec. 26), so low as 2° ($36\frac{1}{2}$ F.); but, at noon, about 15° or 16° (68° F.). At Cairo it is uniformly warmer; and on 9 and 10 of Thermidor, an. 7 (July 27 and 28, 1799), it was, in the afternoon, at 31° , near 103 of Farenheit.

'Observations on the Weight of the Air, the Direction of the Winds, and the State of the Heavens. By M. Coutelle.' These observations were continued from 22 Frimaire, an. 8, to 24 Nivose following (from about Dec. 12 to Jan. 12 following). The barometer was from 27° $11\frac{1}{2}$ lines to 28° 6 lines; the winds variable; a little rain fell twice.

'Report on the Correspondence of Styles adopted by different Nations. By M. Nouet.' We scarcely see the connexion of this memoir with the Egyptian campaign or conquest, except so far as regards the Coptic style. Their year does not greatly differ from the Julian, but their æra dates from the persecution of Diocletian, and the first day of their year is September 9. We could have wished that these volumes had been more exclusively confined to Egypt.

'The geographic Position of different points of Egypt

determined by M. Nouet, and communicated to M. Jacolin, Director of the Geographic Engineers.' These tables also will not require any notice, since we have the result in the late maps.

'Astronomic Observations made in Higher Egypt to fix the Position of several Spots, and to determine the Direction of the Nile from Syene to Cairo. By M. Nouet.' This article also requires no particular notice.

'Memoir on the Sands of the Desert. By M. L. Costaz.' What may be called the physical constitution of the moving sands, which in mobility almost emulate water, and 'which are so dry you would almost call them wet,' is singularly curious. They are wholly quartzose, and of a dead white. The particles are so small as to accommodate them to every variation of elevation, and, by moon-light, their resemblance to snow is peculiarly striking: the difference is scarcely perceptible. The grains are transparent, and very round, of the diameter of nearly a millimeter. M. Costaz describes the sand-hills, with their formation. Sand, driven forward by the wind, falls on the leeward side of any obstacle, and gradually accumulates. At the foot of the sandy mountains, pure water may be expected, as the saline particles are separated by filtering through the sand above.

'Notice annexed to a Plan of Alexandria. By M. Le Père.' This information is chiefly designed to elucidate the plan, which comprehends also the harbour. It appears to have been executed with great diligence and judgement.

'Abstract of a Memoir on the Méqyas of Reoudah. By M. Le Père. The Méqyas is the famous Nilometer, from which it appears that the Nile has not varied for more than two thousand years. The sterility of Egypt is owing to the vexatious impositions of successive despots: and, in better hands, the country may resume its former fertility.

'Memoir on the Canal of Alexandria. By MM. Lancret and Cabrol, engineers of Bridges and High Roads.'

This famous canal has been traced by the attention and address of these authors, and their description of the course and extent of this vast work is highly interesting. We cannot follow it minutely, or notice the improvements which the author proposes in the repairs. There seem to have been two canals; this which our author has traced, and another which conducted the waters of the Nile on the side of the lake Mareotis, before the time of Alexander. It is evident that a great part of the country on the right side of the canal was in high cultivation, as well as that there were two kinds of water of different qualities brought into the city, which were seemingly discharged in different quarters. The whole of this subject is well explained, from a comparison of the descriptions of ancient historians and geographers, par-

ticularly Strabo and Arián. The canal of Alexandria is of peculiar importance, as connected with that of Suez, and as forming a communication between the Nile and the Red Sea. Our author shows, and it is of consequence in the consideration of the subject, that, when conducted with proper views, every step in the repair would be of value, and fully answer the expense. Under the Turkish dominion, however, every kind of attempt is highly improbable.

The Fables of Logman, surnamed the Sage, an Arabian Edition, with a French Translation, and preceded by an Account of that celebrated Fabulist. By M. J. J. Marcel. The Fables of Logman still retain in Arabia the highest credit. The apologues of Logman and Pilpay are the only original ones; for Æsop, Phædrus, and La Fontaine, if Æsop ever existed, were copyists only. The apologue was the sole mode in which wisdom could be conveyed to despotic monarchs, whose will was their only law; and this mode of writing was early cultivated in the seat of despotism, the East. It is, however, the object of M. Marcel to show that Æsop and Logman were the same persons, since whatever is related of the former is true of the latter. Logman was an Abyssinian slave; and *Λισμάνος* is only slightly changed from *Αθιωπρος*: he lived nearly about the æra of David, or of Cosroës, of the Persians, while the supposed date of Æsop's age is five hundred years later; yet the only remaining anecdotes of the latter are preserved by oriental authors as occurring to the former. The celebrated poet Gelal-êd-dyn, surnamed *êl-Balkhy*, relates the circumstance of Logman having been falsely accused of eating figs, and having cleared himself, as well as convicted his accusers by warm water. In his didactic poem, entitled *Methnawy*, he adds the following apostrophe, or moral:—

‘O you! you who cover yourselves in this world with the garments of an honest man, and conceal the worst vices in your heart, when at the day of judgement you drink the hot burning water, what you have concealed with so much care shall appear to the world, and the esteem you have acquired by your hypocrisy shall be changed to shame and confusion.’ This is perhaps a little too much in the style of modern fanatics or spiritualisers.

Sadi, in his *Bostân* and his *Gulistân*, reports many traits of Logman, and another occurs in a Persian poem, styled *Nigaristan*, both of which we shall transcribe.

‘A caravan, with which Logmah travelled, was plundered by robbers, who were moved neither by the tears nor the lamentations of the merchants they had robbed. One of them said to Logman, You should give these robbers lessons of wisdom and good conduct, that, moved by your advice and remonstrances, they might restore us a portion of our goods, and repair, at least, a part of the mischief they have occasioned us.’

"It would be much worse," rejoined Logman, "to prostitute lessons of wisdom to villains equally incapable of comprehending and believing them. No file can clean iron of its rust, when that rust has wholly consumed it."

Again — 'Logman's master having one day given him a bitter apple to eat, he devoured it without repugnance. Astonished at this act of obedience, his master asked him how he could eat a fruit so disagreeable to the taste. "You have given me many sweets," replied the sage; "and it would be surprising if I could not eat the only bitter fruit that I ever received from you." An admirable lesson! It is a practical maxim, similar to the truly pious reflexion of Job, which *every heart in pain* should remember—"Have I received good from the hands of God, and shall I not receive evil?"—We shall only add one other maxim preserved in the Koran.

'And Logman said to his son, whom he was instructing—"O my son! associate no one with God; for to give God an equal is the blackest crime."

'Observations on the Diseases, and particularly the Dysentery, which reigned in Fructidor, An VI (August and December 1798), in the Army of the East. By M. Bruant.' Our author's account of the dysentery is very satisfactory; and we may add, for a future purpose, that the ophthalmia sometimes alternated with this disease, and very often relieved it. The description is clear and accurate; the mode of treatment judicious. M. Bruant generally began with an emetic, whatever were the period of the disorder, unless the weakness was very considerable. It was occasionally repeated, and followed by an active purgative, which generally relieved. Afterwards a slighter laxative, such as rhubarb, with cream of tartar, terminated the complaint. Opium was injurious, except given with, or soon followed by, a laxative. When joined with putrid fever, the bark was administered in small doses, frequently repeated. When the dysentery was more obstinate, tonics, with gentle evacuants, and occasional opiates to allay irritation, were useful. Blisters to the legs seemed sometimes to calm the irregular motions of the bowels.

'Essay on the physical and medical Topography of Damietta. By M. Savaresi.'

'Observations on the Diseases which reigned at Damietta, in the first semestre of the Year VII. By the same.'

'Description and Treatment of the Ophthalmia of Egypt. By the same.'

These articles are so closely connected, that they must be considered together. Damietta, situate on the Lake Menzaleh, and in the neighbourhood of marshes produced

by the inundations, is very unhealthy. The waters are brackish, the plants salt; and, from habit, the natives eat large quantities of salt with their viands. The country is alluvial; but the author finds, or fancies, some volcanic productions; in which he is certainly deceived. The inhabitants, living in dirt and smoke, experience a premature old age, and have every disease which filth and inactivity can engender. Their chief complaints are intermittents and dysentery. The diseases of the army at this period were diarrhœa, dysentery, ophthalmia, and tertians. But the most interesting part of the second memoir is a description of a very severe typhus, attended with petechiæ, anthraxes, and buboes. Our author's mode of treatment was by camphorated sudorific potions, *nitrated* sudorific ptisans, and clysters. We see no hint of either bark or wine. The account of the ophthalmia is in no respect important. M. Savaresi attributes it to the calcareous and aluminous dust; and has blinded dogs, by throwing it into their eyes, to prove his hypothesis; yet, among the preservative means, he directs the cold of the evening to be avoided. There can be little doubt of the ophthalmia being a feverish epidemic, as we shall have frequent opportunities of showing.

‘Physical or Medical Topography of *Old Cairo*. By M. Renati.’ This memoir is written with singular elegance and spirit; but it contains little that is new, or that can be conveniently selected. Cairo is situated in a salubrious spot, and would be highly populous, were not the numbers greatly lessened by the plague, the small-pox, and the rickets. This last disease is a singular one, when every circumstance is considered; for few traces exist of its effects on adults. It comes on at about two years of age—and so long the mother usually suckles—and appears to be soon fatal. The Egyptians in general are temperate: smoking is their only excess. M. Renati attributes the ophthalmia also to the dust; but recommends, as a preservative, lying with the head warm.

‘Notes on the Diseases prevalent in Frimaire, An VII, collected in the Military Hospital of Old Cairo. By M. Barbes.’ The diseases seemed to arise from the fogs, and the great difference of temperature between the days and nights. They were chiefly colds, dysenteries, and fevers. In the dysenteries, a blister to the abdomen was found of great service.

‘Fragments of a Collection of Medical Observations made in the Army of the East. By M. Desgenettes.’ These fragments chiefly relate to the appearance and progress of the plague. Here, at least, Bonaparte acted with propriety; and M. Desgenettes records a history of his conduct; but

this circumstance was prior to the campaign of Syria. When it was objected, that burning the clothes would be expensive, he replied, 'I am come here to fix the attention, and carry back the interests, of Europe to the centre of the old world, and not to collect riches.' Some remarks on the appearance and progress of the dysentery, and other complaints, are subjoined.

'The Answer of the supreme Divan of Cairo to M. Desgenettes,' who communicated some remarks on the nature and treatment of the small-pox, is curious. It is in a strain of grateful acknowledgement and eastern hyperbole. 'The *people* offer numerous prayers, in gratitude for your kindness: they praise and value, with justice, the extent of the service you have done them: they acknowledge that profound learning, the most enlightened science, and excellent views in the art of healing, *belong to the French alone*. A proof of this is your work.'—The '*people*' had unfortunately not heard a word on the subject; and, if they had, would have received it with the most listless apathy:

RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

Nouveau Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle, &c. A new Dictionary of Natural History, applied to the Arts, chiefly to Agriculture and to rural and domestic Economy. In about twenty Volumes, large 8vo. Adorned with Plates. Paris. Deterville.—We mean at present only to announce this dictionary, of which, in fact, we have seen only the first *livraison*, consisting of three volumes, which comes down to *Cheval*. It is a work of the first importance, and designed as a complete Encyclopædia of natural history. The work of Valmont de Bomère, even in his latest editions, is imperfect, and does not contain the application of natural history either to the arts or to agriculture. In this new dictionary, it is observed that readers of every age and class will find suitable information; and at the end will be given generic characters of every branch of natural history, illustrated by a suitable number of plates. The number of volumes cannot yet be exactly ascertained. It will consist of not less than twenty volumes, as it is determined not to mutilate any subject by contracting it; and it will be published in *livraisons* of three volumes every three months. Considerable advantages are offered to subscribers. We have only to add the names of the chief authors; which we shall do, by observing, that it had the assistance of Sonnini and Virey, in what relates to man, quadrupeds, birds, and cetacea; of Parmentier, Huzard, and Sonnini, on the veterinary art and domestic economy; of Bosch for fish, reptiles, molusca, and worms; of Olivier and Latreille for insects; of Chaptal, Cels and Parmentier, Thoms, Dutour and Bosch, for botany, with its application to the arts, to agriculture, gardening, rural and domestic economy; to Chaptal and Patrin for mineralogy, geology, meteorology, and natural philosophy.

Des Végétaux Résineux, &c. On resinous Vegetables, both indigenous and exotic; or a complete Description of Trees and Shrubs, which produce Resins, with the Processes for extracting them, a particular Indication of their Properties and Uses in Medicine, Pharmacy, the Veterinary Art, Painting, &c. By F. S. Duplessy. Four Volumes. 8vo. Paris.—This ample title-page explains sufficiently the object of the author, who seems to have collected all that is at present known on the subject, and to have spared no pains in a very diffuse wordy illustration. The first part comprises a description of the plants which produce camphor, and the history of all the vegetables which contain this peculiar substance; among which are hyssop and rosemary. The mode of preparing and preserving it is next added, with its medicinal and œconomic uses. Camphor, however, is scarcely a resin.

The second part embraces the turpentine trees, including the balm of Guiana; and the third, the aromatic and the poisonous plants, including the styrax, the liquid amber, the benzoin; but more particularly the medicinal resins. The last part contains the plants from which indigo, varnish, elastic gum, and those plants which afford the resinous juice, useful in painting, dying, and the other arts. To this is joined a list of synonyms, the common terms in seven languages, cultivation, &c. The whole is concluded by a memoir, by Juauche, on the *modus operandi* of resins on the animal œconomy.

Récueil de Lettres de la Famille de Salomon Gesner. Collection of Letters of the Family of Solomon Gesner. 2 Vols. 8vo.—An English version of the works of Gesner has been some time in our hands; but we cannot delay noticing the present publication. These letters were first published in German, but were not originally written for the press. They consist of familiar conversations between a father and a son, on the subject of the fine arts, and the studies necessary for those who cultivate them, particularly painters. In these letters, Gesner appears the artist, the man, the father, and the friend; and this circumstance has induced the editor to introduce letters from other parts of the family. Gesner has left a great number of designs, of studies from nature, of compositions of different kinds, more or less finished, which form, with the choice of his best pictures, a collection which his family value as the most precious portion of their inheritance. It is, however, determined to engrave the whole compilation; and, for this purpose, the two last volumes of the complete collection of the works of Gesner, in 4to. will be published, on which he was employed for the two last years of his life. His family possess also

many designs, destined by himself to form the plates and vignettes, with which he meant to adorn them. These designs will be engraved, without any alteration, by able artists; and those still wanting to complete the work will be executed by his son, now in this country, in concert with the best engravers. The conditions for the subscription will soon be published. The letters are followed by a list of Gesner's pictures, and a catalogue of his engravings in *aqua fortis*.

Cours pratique de Commerce, &c. A practical Course of Commerce, for the Use of Farmers, Artificers, and Merchants; or the Application of Mathematics to the elementary Operations of Commerce or Circulation, as an Introduction to a Course of banking Operations: by J. Neveu. 2 Vols. 8vo.—If France be not a commercial nation, neither the present authors, nor the chief consul, are in fault. They talk learnedly on it: but a single quotation, from M. Taleyrand, shows the baseless fabric of their vision. *Il faut de l'argent—beaucoup d'argent: mais, hélas! il n'y en a point.* Our author has already published a work on Banking, which we have not seen. The present volumes are not very interesting or useful. After a definition of commerce in general, and its various branches—remarks on papers of credit and the balance of commerce, followed by historical considerations on the commerce of nations, particularly that of France, and on public or national finances—he gives a general and historic introduction to the mathematics, and explains the chronologic terms of *cycles, epacts, &c.* not forgetting *Sunday letters*. Some useful tables, with an *approximating* 'Price Current,' are subjoined. In the second volume, he adds an account of the different natural productions, either in their unformed or manufactured state, with an historic essay on agriculture and gardening, as an equipoise perhaps to the epacts. The volume concludes with a *tarif* of prices current at Paris.

Journal d'un Voyage en Allemagne, &c. Journal of a Tour in Germany, in the Year 1773, by G. A. H. Guibert, Author of a general Essay on Tactics: a posthumous Work published by his Widow, and preceded by an historical Account of the Life of the Author, by F. E. Toulangeon. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris.—We had intended to have followed our author at some length, and to have made some extensive extracts from his accounts of Frederic and Joseph II; but the want of room, and the remark that we necessarily offered of the portraits being tinged with a little prejudice and disappointment, prevented our extending the article, as we designed: yet of Joseph little is truly known, but that he meant well, was

enterprising, and unfortunate. Let us, however, speak of the author, from the '*Notice Historique.*'

'There are few who knew M. Guibert, but must recollect his wit, his vivacity, and his talents. The Essay on military Tactics is a master-piece of judgement, of information, and experience. He promised every-thing: but a premature death put an end to the sanguine expectations of his friends. Those acquainted with him will be grateful to the biographer, for having preserved the portrait, in which we perceive no artful glare, no meretricious colouring: those who have only seen him in his works, will be pleased with a nearer view of the man himself.

'His Travels are fragments only, thrown together at the end of the day, while the author was waiting for a moment of more leisure, to put the last hand to these animated sketches, and give the finishing, which haste would not at first permit. Thirty years have now elapsed: but, during his life, this leisure was still wanting: yet, the justness of the remarks, the profound knowledge displayed in military affairs, the spirited pictures drawn of monarchs then alive, whom, from his rank and his reputation, he had the honour of observing at no great distance, render these fragments truly interesting. They appear, as they were written, in the style of a journal, with those little negligences which characterise the soldier and the philosopher, traveling for instruction. He stops only when striking objects present themselves, when useful facts, or important matters, offer. He speaks, for example, particularly of the military establishments of the princes of the empire; runs over, with enthusiasm, the scene of the seven years' war. He particularly rests, to notice the Prussian army; and talks, with freedom, of what concerns its general and monarch—the great Frederic. He then traces the chief traits of the military organisation of former times, and of the Croatians, those descendents of the ancient Daci, once so formidable to Rome.'—We mean not, by this short account, to preclude ourselves from the privilege of again noticing this volume, and extracting some lively passages. We must however add, that a little personal pique seems to have guided the pen, in tracing the character of Frederic; who, if not a Solomon, was at least an extraordinary man, M. Guibert, however, paints him, as a man without principle, without character, without sensibility; and even denies that he was a great general. This description is, nevertheless, professedly drawn from the accounts of Quintus Julius (M. Guiscard) and the abbé Battiani: but they betray some little partiality, perhaps from disappointment. The author of the Essay on Tactics, a work of no vulgar credit, was received as a common stranger; and, at the review in Silésie,

the king affected to talk to him only of his tragedy of the 'Constable.'

Lettres de Paciaudi, &c. The Letters of Paciaudi to Count Caylus: with an Appendix, Notes, and an Essay on the Life of the Italian Antiquary, published by A. Seryes. 8vo. Paris.—We notice the letters of Paciaudi, as suitable companions for those of the abbé Barthelemy, which we lately reviewed, though we think these before us much more interesting. The studies of both antiquaries are the same, the manner of writing similar, and the objects not very different. Paciaudi may even be considered as one of the authors of the Collection of Antiquities, published by the count; for these letters show that he furnished a great part of the materials of count Caylus's work. Independently of this merit, the general reader will find his curiosity gratified by confidential information, and by the historic and literary details which these letters contain.

Œuvres complètes de Fréret, &c. Complete Works of Fréret, Secretary of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. With a Plan of the Battle of Thymbraea. 20 Vols, 12mo.—This complete edition of many valuable dissertations, already published in the successive volumes of the Academy, will be very acceptable to the philological reader. The author's character, as well as the value of his works, are sufficiently known; and we need only add the copy of the titles of the essays. These are, 1. The Eloges, written by the secretary; 2. General Observations on ancient History; 3. Historical Inquiries on the Greeks and Romans; 4. Historic Inquiries on the ancient Nations of Asia; 5. On the Language of the Chinese; 6. Examination of the Discoveries of the Ancients in Arts and Sciences; 7. Religion of the ancient Nations; Mythology, or the Religion of the Greeks; Religion of the ancient European Nations; 8. A critical Examination of the Apologists of the Christian Religion; 9. Letters of Thrasybulus to Leucippe.

L'Esprit, &c. Genius; a posthumous Work, by M. de la Beaumelle. 12mo. Paris.—The title of the volume is not unsuitable to the name of the author. It indeed resembles his other works, and is lively, but superficial. The attacks of Voltaire raised Beaumelle to the honour of being extensively known: but, to be attacked by that sultan who 'bore no brother near his throne,' will now convey no disgrace.

Notice sur la Vie et les Ouvrages du Général d'Arcon, &c. An Account of the Life and Writings of General d'Arcon: by Giroud Chateaux. 12mo. Paris.—The life of general d'Ar-

con must be interesting, not from his more active exertions, his conquests, or his manœuvres. He planned in silence; and much of the success of the French, in the first campaigns, was said to be owing to his arrangements. He was the contriver of the floating batteries which attacked Gibraltar, and loudly complained of the precipitation of the general, who hurried them into action before they were complete. We remember to have seen the plans; and, had all his contrivances been effectually executed, they would, we think, have escaped destruction. The various communications which the author has received from d'Arcon's most intimate friends, fully authenticate the account here given.

GERMANY.

Synopsis Methodica Fungorum, &c. Methodic Synopsis of Fungi, containing an Enumeration of all the Species hitherto discovered; with short Descriptions, the Synonyms, and select Observations. By D. C. Persoon. Parts I and II. 8vo. Gœttingen.—The class cryptogamia was little attended to, till within these few years; and it is with pleasure we see a work so extensive and accurate, on this neglected subject, as the present. We formerly noticed the author's '*Tentamen Dispositionis Methodicæ*,' which is the basis of the present volume. The knowledge of the cryptogamic plants, it has been said, is alone sufficient to employ the whole life of a botanist; and the present work shows that one division of that class only, the fungi, contains, in reality, more species, than all the cryptogamiæ hitherto discovered.

The species, noticed in the present work, amount to 1526, observed only in Germany, England, and France. The mushrooms of the rest of Europe, of America, the Cape, and Australasia, are scarcely known. The author has admitted only the species which he has himself observed, or of which he was able to procure exact and authentic figures and descriptions. He has even omitted some, respecting which he expects to receive more accurate accounts. The introduction is on the principles of the mythologic philosophy, and is followed by a nomenclature of the classes, orders, and species.—We regret that the work is not concluded by a general table of the names of the species and synonyms, with a list of the doubtful species omitted.

Wildenow und J. J. Bernhards zwei Botanische Abhandlungen, &c. Two botanical Memoirs on some rare Species of Fern, on the Asplenium, and some analogous Species: by MM. Wildenow and Bernhard. 8vo. Erfurt.—M. Wildenow, who is now publishing a new and very complete edition of Linnæus's Vegetable System, communicated to the

Academy of Sciences, at Mentz, a memoir, containing some general observations on the cryptogamiæ, and on the definition of this class. He offers a new arrangement, which, for reasons just alleged, we cannot enlarge on, or on the reasons which led him to differ from Linnæus.

In the second memoir, M. Bernhard examines some ferns, which he obtained from the herbarium of Forster, by means of M. Sprengel. He defines the species of asplenium, from the envelopes opening on one side only; and this character leads him to consider the blechnum, the woodwardia, pteris, lonchitis, and darea, as varieties alone. He admits a new species, which he calls gymnopteris, which is distinguished from the asplenium, by a total want of envelopes. M. Swartz, however, considers this species, as a true hemionitis.

Dissertationes Academicæ, habitæ Upsaliæ, &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. Göttingen. — The third volume, which we have just received, reminds us of our omission of the former. They were originally published at Upsal: but the edition was sold, as soon almost as it appeared: the present is under the direction of M. Persoon. The dissertations in the two first volumes are almost exclusively botanic; the third is on subjects of zoölogy, ichthyology, ornithology, and entomology. The last subject is the principal; and fills fifteen essays, nine of which relate to the insects of Sweden, the others to some new species.

The first dissertation is ichthyologic, on the muræna and ophicto, accompanied by two plates, engraved by Ahl. The nine following essays are on Swedish insects, divided into nine sections. The number is sixty-six: but, in this place, we cannot even copy the names. The six ensuing dissertations are entitled — ‘*Novæ Insectorum Species*,’ divided into six sections: yet, to mention each of these, would be also to exceed our limits. The plates are not coloured; but are so carefully engraved, as to render colouring less necessary. We may just remark, in this place, that the author’s ‘*Prodromus Plantarum Capensium*,’ in octavo, is lately concluded, published at Copenhagen; and that the second deced of the ‘*Icones Plantarum Japonicarum*’ has appeared at Upsal.

Aufangsgründe der Naturlehre, &c. Principles of Natural Philosophy: by J. T. Maier. 8vo. Göttingen. — While we so greatly want an elementary system of natural philosophy, connected equally with physical and mechanic principles, we cannot avoid noticing the present work, which, with some imperfections, combines considerable merit. It

is, in reality, rather chemical than strictly philosophic—for we find little notice of the mechanic powers, or of optics. Physical astronomy, meteorology, and the theory of the earth, are designedly omitted, as they are to form a part of a future work. In the introduction, the author speaks of the atomic and dynamic systems; in other words, of the systems of Newton and of Kant. He leans to the former, though he does not attempt to conceal its difficulties; and, in general, the work merits our commendation, for its clearness and precision. We would particularly recommend what relates to the theory of sound, to electricity, chemistry, and Galvanism.

Vom Galvanismus, &c. On Galvanism; and its Use in Medicine; with four Plates: by F. L. Augustin. 8vo. Berlin.—The idea of collecting whatever relates to the medical use of Galvanism merits our applause. The author begins with an explanation of the different opinions respecting the effects of the Galvanic fluid, and points out the diseases in which it has been considered as useful. These are asphyxia, palsy, nervous diseases from a direct astheny, weakness of sight and cataracts, deafness, loss of voice, chronic rheumatism, tumours without inflammation, asthenic inflammations, pains in the teeth, dropsy, &c. The author requests physicians to communicate to him the result of their experience.

Handbuch zur Kenntniz und Heilung innerer Krankheiten, &c. A Manual respecting the Knowledge and Treatment of the internal Diseases of the human Body: by J. C. Starke. 2 Vols. 8vo. Iena.—The first volume, respecting the acute diseases, was published some time since. The author, whose long experience and extensive knowledge have rendered his former works truly valuable, collected in that volume an excellent stock of instruction for students and practitioners. It was received with great respect; and the present, on chronic diseases, is not less valuable. The principal subjects are colic, gravel, rheumatism, catalepsy, melancholy, epilepsy, spasm, phthisis, &c.

He promises us a very simple and successful cure of epilepsy, which he considers as hereditary, and chiefly from the constitution of the father. In the croup, he finds very good effects from the ledum palustre. In phthisis, he prefers the mezereon bark to cauteries; and gives the lichen Islandicus to six or seven ounces daily.

Benurkungen auf einer Reise durch einem theil Schwedens, &c. Observations made in a Journey through Part of Sweden. By J. G. Eck, the younger. 8vo. Leipsic.—

The author, son of the celebrated Eck of Leipsic, publishes in this volume some interesting observations on one of the most fertile provinces of Sweden. Scania is hitherto little known; and our author has given us very useful information, as he has examined it with attention, in many different views.

This province, which may be styled the granary of Sweden, has near ninety square miles of surface. It contains nine cities, and its population amounts to 219,830. The climate is milder than the rest of Sweden; but the inhabitants are represented as less active than the Germans.

Lund, one of the principal cities, was ceded to Sweden in 1658; and, ten years afterwards, an academy was established in it. In the library, is a very valuable manuscript of Virgil, of the seventh or eighth century, written on parchment, with the initial letters beautifully illuminated; and, among other curiosities, is one half of the head of Descartes.—May the librarians be one half as learned and ingenious!—The appointments of the professors are paid in corn, in the proportion of one hundred tons to each. Many of them enjoy ecclesiastical benefices, which are served by curates, so that they live in an honourable retirement. Within these ten years, the critical philosophy has engaged much of the attention of the Swedes; and it is taught publicly at Lund and Upsal: this is the system of Kant. The study of national antiquities begins to spread, as well as that of mineralogy and natural history. The anti-phlogistic system of Lavoisier has many partisans.

The city of Malmoe, one of the richest in Sweden, possesses a considerable share of commerce. It contains 8000 inhabitants, and some manufactories. The city of Landskron is of little consequence, notwithstanding all the efforts of government to support its trade, and excite its industry. The Isle of Hween was given to Tycho Brahe by the king of Denmark, and was the spot on which his observations were made.

M. Eck proceeds from Scania to Helsingeur, in Zealand, one of the principal cities of Sweden. It contains 5000 inhabitants, two sugar-refineries, and a manufactory of arms, which furnishes the whole Danish army. At no great distance from this city, is a beautiful royal villa of Marienlust, which has been so well described and represented by Hirschfelt, in his 'Theory of the Art of Gardens.' The work concludes with an excellent memoir on the Swedish and Danish languages, their origin, their distinguishing characters, and their analogy with the German.

Sammlung verschiedener Schriften über Schlesiens Geschichte, &c. A Collection of different Memoirs relative to the History and Constitution of Silesia. By F. G. Pachali. 8vo. Breslaw.—This author published a history of Silesia in 1790, which was very favourably received. It comprehended the period from the year 1163 to 1740. The present work, though with a different title, is a continuation of the former, and brings the history down to 1786. Many of the memoirs have, however, been previously published, though they now appear in a more correct and a more enlarged form; which renders them more generally interesting.

The first of these memoirs treats of the invasion of Silesia by the Moguls. The author endeavours to show, that at this time these Tartars, who were established between the Alsace mountains and China, carried off many of the Silesians, by whom the Siberian mines were explored.

The second memoir treats of the re-union of Silesia to Bohemia, in the fourteenth century. Silesia was once united with Poland; but the Poles not liking the Silesian princes, this latter country, by the mediation of the imperial court, was separated, and joined to Bohemia.

The third memoir contains an abstract of the history of the Silesian bishops; and the fourth, the life of John II., duke of Sagan and Glogau, who sold his duchy to Ernest, elector of Saxony.

The fifth memoir is of more general interest, comprising, 'Fragments of the physical Geography of Silesia.' By long observation, it appears, that, in Breslaw, there are two hundred clear fair days in the year, and one hundred and sixty-five cloudy, or rainy. The famous mountain Schneekoppe is 4949 Paris feet in height. The Schneeburg (snowy mountain), in the county of Glatz, is 4500; and the great Rheel, 4661 above the level of the sea. The country on the left of the Oder is the most fertile. Its extent is six hundred and fifty square miles; and the population amounts to 1,800,000, having increased, since it has been under the Prussian government, one third. The last memoir is on the history of taking the oath in Silesia; the first instance of which was in 1527, in favour of John of Luxembourg, king of Bohemia.

Geschichte der Preussischen Staaten, &c. History of the Prussian States, previous to their re-union or Monarchy. By J. F. Reitemeier. Vol. I. Frankfort.—The Prussian monarchs sprang from a younger branch of the house of Hoenzollern; and it was pleasantly said, '*voilà un cadet qui a fait une fortune.*' The history of obscure states, united by artifice, violence, and every disgraceful mean, cannot be

very interesting. The author rakes in the rubbish of antiquity, for some years previous to the eighth century, down to 1150 and 1320. Would our readers follow him? No! No! No!—The Noes have it; but he will not lose his reward.

SWEDEN.

Beiträge zur Beschreibung von Sainte Croix. Memoirs. to assist a Description of Ste. Croix, accompanied with a Glance at the adjacent Islands, St. Thomas, St. John, Tortola, &c. Translated from the Danish by J. P. Oxholm. With two Charts of Ste. Croix and St. John. 8vo. Copenhagen.—The original appeared in 1794, but extended a little way only beyond its original limits. We find, in the beginning, nothing that is not common to the other tropical islands, unless it be an exception, that the slaves are usually well treated. They are lively, ingenious, and excel in various works of utility and art: the females are represented as superior in needle-work. In a fertile year, 1788, Ste. Croix produced 24,000 barrels of sugar. In 1791 there were nearly two millions of white inhabitants, 926 free negroes and mulattoes, 25,540 slaves. The population, on the whole, amounted to 24,418. The city of Christianstadt contained 664 houses, and 5000 inhabitants. It is situate in latitude $17^{\circ} 49' 26''$ north, and in longitude $64^{\circ} 49' 26''$ west of Greenwich. It is seven miles long, and about a mile wide. One plantation, well stocked, contains about 50,000 square *ells*—about 1500 'paces' long and 1000 wide. If the pace be of three feet, it will be somewhat less than a mile long, and little more than half a mile wide. The plain part of the island is most fertile, but unhealthy. The heat is excessive. A catalogue of the plants is subjoined. The white inhabitants are chiefly English.

The inhabitants of St. Thomas are a mixture of every nation and language. In 1789 the number amounted to 492 whites, 160 free negroes, and 4614 slaves. In the same year, in St. John, there were 167 whites, 16 free negroes, and 2200 slaves—total 2383. The population of Tortola amounts to 1300 whites and about 4350 negroes.

This very accurate account of these Danish islands is illustrated with three large and very exact charts. Two relate to Ste. Croix, the other to St. John.

I T A L Y.

Elementi di Botanica. Elements of Botany, by Dom. Nacea, with many Plates introductory to a Knowledge of the System of Linnaeus. 8vo. Padua.—The author attempts to ex-

plain the system of Linnæus by some well-chosen examples and drawings executed by himself. His object is to explain the knowledge of plants, and to render the nomenclature of the science familiar. He aims not at novelty, but perspicuity, and, so far as we can judge, has attained it.

Dell Epigramma Greco et dell Anacreontica Greca. On the Greek Epigram and the Greek Anacreontic, by Count de Targas. 12mo. Sienna.—We do not think our author's definition of the Greek epigram, with which the work commences, perfectly just. 'It is,' he remarks, 'the expression of a situation or of an interesting idea, whose object is to give instruction or to raise emotion.' This definition may well apply to different kinds of poetry, particularly the lyric; and we should prefer the following—*viz.* an elegant and rapid expression of a sentiment occasioned by a lively impression. This, however, is not exactly suitable to our ideas: it *trims* between the ancient and modern meaning, without exactly meeting either. Like many other good things, it must be felt; for it cannot be defined.

The author next attempts to class epigrams, and quotes some of each kind, subjoining good, indeed often elegant, translations. In the first class, are those simply expressive of the subject, such as the epigrams of Alcaeus, and several of Lucian's. In the second, those which subjoin a kind of application: the examples are, one of Antipater on a statue of Myron, and one of Posidippus on a similar subject. In the third class, are those that show the object under its true and only point of view, such as that on the Niobe of Praxiteles, and of Simonides on a statue of Sophocles. In the fourth class, are the epigrams which unite many different objects: examples, that of Archias on a swallow, that of Pallas on the fire stolen by Prometheus.

In the following and last chapter the author explains the history and rules of the Greek epigram, pointing out the changes of the Anthology, and quoting many examples to show the difference between epigrams, Anacreontics, and moral sentences.

The second memoir is on Anacreontic poetry, and is of less importance. The count considers it as of a mixed kind, of which the principal ideas are founded on hope, desire, and remembrance. This conception is too vague for a classification; and we shall not, therefore, follow that which is founded on it. In general, this is a pleasing work. The critical observations are ingenious, and the translations often truly elegant.

Memorie del Cavaliere Roberto Monroe. Memoirs of the Chevalier Monroe. 8vo. Trieste.—The author informs us

that this is not a romance, but the adventures of an enlightened, an honest, and ingenious man. The work is amusing and instructive, particularly from the episodes intermixed. We shall select some of the titles: 1. the inconveniences, pleasures, and advantages, of traveling; 2. instability of human affairs; 3. character and force of ambition; 4. jealousy without love; 5. the passions less violent in mature age, but more difficult to subdue.—The style is free and pure.

Quadro del Cuore umano. Tablets of the human Heart, or a Collection of Anecdotes and Novels, both instructive and amusing. 5 Vols. 8vo. Venice.—This is a pleasing little collection, long since begun, and now concluded. The novels are taken from different languages, often from the English; and the volume, we think, might make a pleasing school-book.

Anno Poetico. The Poetic Year, or the annual Collection of unpublished Poems by living Authors. 8vo. Venice.—Our classification, in the two last articles, we perceive to be wrong. Turin is in France, and Venice under the dominion of Austria; but these unnatural unions cannot overturn natural boundaries; and the language must furnish our apology. We notice the present work, chiefly to offer an antidote to the imposition of the title. By 'living authors,' the editor means those alive in *fame*, though long since *really dead*; 'for the dead live, and will always live, with posterity.' We consequently find pieces of Agostino Paradisi, of Aurelio Bertola, of Gastone di Rezzonico, and even of Cina da Pistoja, of Petrarch, and Dante.

A similar apology must be made for '*unpublished*' poems, since the *versi sciolti* of abbate Bettinelli, on the legislation of Leopold II. in Tuscany; the beautiful Ode of Vincenzo Giobacci, in praise of Virgil, printed, many years since, by Bodoni; and the cantatas of Cerati, cannot be styled unpublished. On the whole, the editors have given fewer new pieces than in their former publication, and, at the same time, fewer indifferent poems. Some truly inedited works are inserted, particularly by the chevalier Ippolito Pindemonte, by count Gozzi, some *versi sciolti* by the abbé Mascheroni, and some poems by the naturalist abbé Fortis.

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